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**INTERNATIONALISATION REVISITED: NEW DIMENSIONS
IN THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION**



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INTERNATIONALISATION REVISITED:

NEW DIMENSIONS IN THE INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

EDITORIAL

Internationalisation is undergoing constant change, influenced by external and internal social, economic, political and academic factors. Over the past 25 years, the international dimension of higher education has risen on the agendas of international organisations and national governments, institutions of higher education and their representative bodies, student organisations and accreditation agencies. This process is also described as mainstreaming of internationalisation. Over the years, internationalisation has moved from a reactive to a pro-active strategic issue, from added value to mainstream, and also has seen its focus, scope and content evolve substantially. Increasing competition in higher education and the commercialisation and cross-border delivery of higher education have challenged the value traditionally attached to cooperation: exchanges and partnerships. Brandenburg and De Wit (2011, p. 27-28) have addressed this increasing tension between the traditional concept of cooperative internationalisation and the current more commercial focus in internationalisation.

At the same time, internationalisation of the curriculum and the teaching and learning process (also referred to as 'Internationalisation at Home') has become as relevant as mobility (both degree mobility and mobility as part of a home degree). Conceptual ideas on Internationalisation at Home or internationalisation of the curriculum have made their way into the strategic plans of a growing number of universities in Europe and beyond (Beelen, 2011a; Beelen & Leask, 2011). This does not mean that these ideas have been implemented. There are many known and unknown obstacles that obstruct the implementation process. One of those is the lack of involvement of academic staff. Another is lack of expertise to implement a meaningful intercultural and international dimension into higher education curricula. (Beelen, 2011b, c).

International educators have focused too much on activities such as mobility, study abroad and international classrooms, as goals in themselves. But a shift from activities to competences is evolving in the policies with respect to the internationalisation of higher education. We have assumed for a long time that these activities or instruments were good in themselves and that by undertaking them, students

would automatically develop competences related to these activities, without any proof that they have. For that reason, a shift in focus from the how (instruments) to the why (objectives) is required. In a first publication: *Trends, Issues and Challenges in Internationalisation of Higher Education* (De Wit, 2011b), by the Centre for Applied Research on Economics and Management (CAREM) of the School of Economics and Management at the Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences (HvA), De Wit addressed the misconceptions and challenges related to current views on internationalisation (2011b, pp. 7-23). A summary article on these misconceptions, "Internationalization of Higher Education: Nine Misconceptions", first published in *International Higher Education* (2011c, pp. 6-7) is part of the present volume, the second one on the theme of internationalisation of higher education by CAREM.

Internationalisation revisited: New dimensions in the internationalisation of higher education is the product of a series of seminars organised by the Research Group on Internationalisation of CAREM in the course of 2010 and 2011 with guest speakers from around the world (Australia, Belgium, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands, Norway, United States of America, United Kingdom), and from the research group itself. It was felt that the expertise displayed and discussed during these seminars should be brought together in a book that can guide teaching staff, curriculum developers, international officers and programme managers in developing internationalisation strategies in their institutions. The book is composed of twelve articles in five sections:

1. EFFECTING AND MONITORING CHANGE
2. INVOLVING ACADEMIC STAFF
3. POLICY AND STRATEGY
4. MOBILITY
5. CURRICULUM

Together they provide an interesting overview of current themes that will guide internationalisation in the coming years. We thank the authors for their willingness to contribute their papers to this publication.

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EDITORS

AMSTERDAM, MARCH 2012

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INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION: NINE MISCONCEPTIONS

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This is a summarised version of his inaugural lecture, published as “Law of the stimulative arrears”, in De Wit, H. (2011). *Trends, issues and challenges in internationalisation of higher education*, pp. 7-23. Amsterdam: CAREM.

Internationalisation in European higher education has developed over the last 20 years, from a marginal point of interest to a central factor – also called a mainstreaming of internationalisation. Indisputably, globalization of our societies and economies has expanded the influence of competition and market processes on the manner in which internationalisation is implemented. Internationalisation distinguishes many motives and approaches. The mainstreaming of internationalisation assumes a more integral process-based approach, aimed at a better quality of higher education and competencies of staff and students. Reality is less promising, however, although the international dimension takes an increasingly central role in higher education. Still, there is a predominantly activity-oriented or even instrumental approach toward internationalisation, which leads to major misconceptions about the nature of this development.

Nine misconceptions will be described (two of them coinciding with a myth as described in IHE by Jane Knight in “Five Myths About Internationalisation” (*IHE*, 62, winter 2011), whereby internationalisation is regarded as synonymous with a specific programmatic or organizational strategy to promote internationalisation— in other words, where the means appear to have become the goal.

EDUCATION IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The influence of the English language as a medium of communication in research has been dominant for a long period of time. Also, over the past 20 years the tendency in higher education has been to teach in English, as an alternative for teaching in one's mother tongue. There are several unintended negative effects. Increasingly, education offered in the English language is regarded as the equivalent of internationalisation, which results in a decreasing focus on other foreign languages; in an insufficient focus on the quality of the English spoken by students and teachers for whom English is not their native language; and thus leading to a decline in the quality of education.

STUDYING OR STAYING ABROAD

A study or internship abroad as part of your home studies is often regarded as the equivalent of internationalisation. In particular, the European Commission's policy to stimulate this manner of mobility has contributed to that instrumental approach over the last 25 years. It is questionable, however, whether the imbalanced and oversimplified approach to mobility matches internationalisation. As well, it can be said that mobility is merely an instrument for promoting internationalisation and not a goal in itself. Mobility needs to be finely embedded in the internationalisation of education. It should be determined whether these added values are developed among students; and more innovative reflection is required on alternative ways of achieving these added values, for instance by the use of distance education and virtual mobility.

AN INTERNATIONAL SUBJECT

A third misconception that continues to surface persistently is that internationalisation is synonymous with providing training based on international content or connotation: European studies, international business, or universal music. Within the institutions and schools offering these programmes, the prevailing opinion seems to imply that, in this way, internationalisation has been properly implemented. Without meaning to ignore the valuable contribution of such programmes, again, it is too simplistic and instrumental an argument to declare regional studies as synonymous with internationalisation.

HAVING MANY INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS

A fourth misconception of internationalisation is the assumption that having many international students equals that trend. Without denying that the combination of local and international students in the lecture room can make a significant contribution to internationalisation, simply having international students is not sufficient. Unfortunately, countless examples can be given of programmes that are oriented exclusively toward international students or where international students are being added as an isolated group.

FEW INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS GUARANTEES SUCCESS

The other side of the preceding misconception occurs as well. In particular, many international programmes have developed a distorted proportion between the number of local and international students. Partly as a result of the increasing national and international competition for international students, the proportion between local and international students becomes more and more unequal. Thus,

one can hardly speak of an international classroom setting. Conversely, this development has a negative effect on the internationalisation of mainstream, non-English-language programmes. Local students with a certain, whether or not motivated, international interest preferably enroll in the international programmes – which means the interest of mainstream education in the local language dwindles. Also, in these programmes the presence of a small number of international students creates tensions. Should the courses be taught in English if there are only one or two international students in the lecture room? How can the integration of international students be realized in such distorted proportions?

NO NEED TO TEST INTERCULTURAL AND INTERNATIONAL COMPETENCIES

A sixth misconception assumes that students normally acquire intercultural and international competencies if they study or serve their internship abroad or take part in an international class. This misconception is closely related to the previous ones about mobility, education in English, and the presence of international students. If these kinds of activities and instruments are considered synonymous with internationalisation, then it is obvious to assume that intercultural and international competences will therefore also be acquired. Once again, reality is more complicated. It is not guaranteed from the outset that these activities will actually lead to that result. After all, students can completely seclude themselves from sharing experiences with other students and other sections of the population in the countries they visit.

THE MORE PARTNERSHIPS, THE MORE INTERNATIONAL

A seventh misconception on internationalisation is the focus on partnerships: the more partnerships, the more success of internationalisation. Globalization, competition, and market processes have reinforced the development toward strategic partnerships. This tendency toward strategic partnerships often implicates intentions, however. The majority of partnerships remain bilateral, and in several institutions and schools the number far exceeds the number of students and teachers being exchanged.

HIGHER EDUCATION – INTERNATIONAL BY NATURE

At universities and among their researchers, the general opinion identified a truly international characteristic, and thus there is no need to stimulate and guide internationalisation. Thereby, references are made to the Renaissance, the time of the philosopher Erasmus (ca. 1467–1536), whom the European exchange program is named after. This historic reference ignores the fact that universities, mostly originated in the 18th and 19th century, had a clear national orientation and function. Internationalisation does not arrive naturally in general universities and universities of applied sciences, but needs to be introduced. That is why the rather widely accepted definition of internationalisation by Jane Knight refers to an integration process.

INTERNATIONALISATION AS A PRECISE GOAL

Most of the mentioned misconceptions conceive an activity or instrument as synonymous with internationalisation. The last, also fairly prevailing, misconception regards internationalisation as a main goal, and therefore it is in line with the misconceptions mentioned earlier. Internationalisation is a

process to introduce intercultural, international, and global dimensions in higher education; to improve the goals, functions, and delivery of higher education; and thus to upgrade the quality of education and research. If internationalisation is regarded as a specific goal, then it remains ad hoc and marginal.

To comprehend the challenges and opportunities for the internationalisation of higher education it is compelling to recognize that these misconceptions are still fairly common.

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Since 2010 Hans is visiting professor at the CAPRI, the Centre for Academic Practice and Research in Internationalisation of Leeds Metropolitan University, United Kingdom. In 2005-2006, he was a New Century Scholar of the *Fulbright Program* “Higher Education in the 21st Century, and in 1995 and 2006 a visiting scholar in the USA and in 2002 in Australia. He has been involved in several projects related to quality and internationalisation, among others for IMHE/OECD and for NVAO. He also published on this issue.

He has (co)written several other books and articles on international education and is actively involved in assessment and consultancy in international education for organisations like the European Commission, UNESCO, World Bank, IMHE/OECD, NVAO and ESMU. His latest book is Hans de Wit (2011), *Trends, Issues and Challenges in Internationalisation of Higher Education*, Amsterdam: CAREM.

Hans de Wit is founding member and past president of the European Association for International Education (EAIE). Currently he is, among other positions, Member of the Board of Trustees of World Education Services (New York), Member of the ESL TOEFL Board (as of 2011), Co-Chair of the Special Interest Group Research in International Education of EAIE, and Member of the Consell Assessor de l’Institut Internacional de Postgrau de la Universitat Oberta de Catalunya.



THE LONG WAIT: RESEARCHING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INTERNATIONALISATION AT HOME

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ABSTRACT

This chapter aims to sketch the lines along which future research into the implementation of Internationalisation at Home –or internationalisation of the curriculum – could or should be conducted. First, a brief overview of the relevant concepts and their definitions will be presented. This demonstrates that the implementation process involves many stakeholders in the university and affects numerous processes. Implementation of an internationalised curriculum is therefore a complicated issue that involves a structural and systematic approach.

The next section focuses on the progress made with the implementation of internationalisation of the curriculum in a global perspective. This is followed by an overview of the processes affected by implementation of curriculum internationalisation, the issues that arise and the research that has been done into these issues. The final section of the paper outlines the aspects of the implementation process that future research could and should address.

"Internationalisation at Home: A brilliant idea awaiting implementation" is the title of a 2007 paper by Joseph Mestenhauser. Almost five years later, IaH has progressed beyond a mere idea and has been acknowledged as a full complement to internationalisation abroad (Knight 2006, 2008). It is now time to

ask what progress has been made. What ideas have been developed on the implementation of internationalisation of the curriculum? After all, as Michael Fullan remarked: “Good ideas with no ideas on how to implement them are wasted ideas.” (Fullan quoted by Scott, 2003).

What are the experiences made and which obstacles have been encountered? How do ideas help to overcome obstacles? What research informs ideas on internationalisation of the curriculum? And which are the lines along which future research could and should be conducted?

CONCEPTS AND DEFINITIONS

The concept of Internationalisation at Home was introduced in 1999. The development of this concept in relation to Internationalisation of the Curriculum in Australia and Campus Internationalisation/Comprehensive Internationalisation in the USA has been discussed recently by Beelen and Leask (2011). Leask’s definition underlines the fact that internationalisation of the curriculum is a complicated process that involves many stakeholders:

“Internationalisation of the Curriculum is the incorporation of an intercultural and international dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning processes and support services of a programme of study. An internationalised curriculum will engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity. It will purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens.” (Leask 2009, p. 209).

Hudzik (2011) stresses the same aspects when he writes:

“Comprehensive internationalization is a commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education. It shapes institutional ethos and values and touches the entire higher education enterprise. It is essential that it be embraced by institutional leadership, governance, faculty, students, and all academic service and support units. It is an institutional imperative, not just a desirable possibility.” (Hudzik 2011, p. 1).

Internationalisation at Home originated in the context of North Western Europe. The following points are characteristics in that context:

- Internationalisation at Home is aimed at all students and is therefore part of the compulsory programme.
- Internationalisation at Home is a set of instruments and activities ‘at home’ that focus on developing international and intercultural competences in all students.

- Internationalisation at Home is based on the assumption that, while students will travel for personal reasons, the majority will not travel for study-related purposes, although the latter option is not entirely excluded.
- May include short-term outgoing mobility in the form of study visits or research assignments that are a component of the compulsory curriculum.
- Only includes the individual experiences of students undertaken during study and placement abroad if these are integrated into the home institution's standard assessment tools (such as the portfolio for all students). (Beelen & Leask, 2011).

The definitions above demonstrate that implementation of an international dimension is a complicated process that involves many stakeholders and touches the core of teaching and learning. In the section below, we will look at how far the implementation process has progressed across the world.

STATE OF THE UNION: HOW FAR HAVE WE PROGRESSED?

There have been several attempts to give a global overview of how far internationalisation of the curriculum has penetrated regions, countries and universities, notably by Beelen (2011) and Beelen and Leask (2011). Although such overviews inevitably lead to generalisation, a picture does emerge.

In Asia, a focus on internationalisation of the curriculum is almost entirely lacking. In Africa, most universities in one single country (i.e. South Africa) have embraced the concept of internationalisation of the curriculum but this is to the exclusion of the rest of the continent. In Latin America, the focus is limited to single universities across the region. Europe shows marked differences between sub regions, with a strong focus in the smaller countries of North-Western Europe and a much weaker development in the bigger European countries, the GIPS countries and Eastern Europe. Germany is the only major European country where, activities have been developed under the flag of "Internationalisierung zu Hause". North America and Australia show a strong focus across the whole region, based on the concepts of Campus Internationalisation/Comprehensive Internationalisation and Internationalisation of the Curriculum respectively.

ONE FOR ALL AND ALL FOR ONE

A focus on internationalisation of the curriculum or isolated activities in the field do not say much about the extent to which students feel the impact of an internationalised curriculum. The key issue here is whether universities have chosen to develop student activities around internationalisation of the curriculum as electives or that they have made the choice to connect internationalisation to graduate attributes, for all students.

In the former situation, it is usually the "champions" of internationalisation that develop international curriculum elements at home for selected groups of students. Issues with implementation are usually limited. The personal drive of the champions will ensure that their ideas will be implemented. Other academic staff do not need to become involved and the fact that no major changes to the curriculum need to be implemented, will not antagonise the "opponents" (for terminology on staff involvement see Childress, 2010).

In the Dutch context, the introduction of the major-minor structure in UAS illustrates this process. The “champions” developed a range of international minors which give students the opportunity to develop an international orientation at home. This opportunity is available to all students, but in practice only a small minority of students chooses an international minor. Indeed, some UAS ‘developed’ international minors that consisted entirely of study abroad. This underlines the fact that international curriculum elements at home, when offered as electives, are basically no different from traditional internationalisation abroad in the sense that they reach only a small minority of students and that they do not have impact on (major) programmes or academic staff in a broader sense.

It is only when an international dimension of the curriculum is connected with graduate attributes for all students, that a different set of implementation issues arises. Internationalisation of the curriculum for all students affects the whole university and therefore also ‘sceptics’ and ‘opponents’ of the internationalisation process.

The case study of two American universities by Childress (2010) has demonstrated that the internationalisation of a university requires considerable resources and extensive efforts, which should moreover be sustained over a long period of time.

Hogeschool van Amsterdam, in its strategic plan for internationalisation (adopted in 2010) has made this choice. This means that all students will acquire international and intercultural competences through at least 30 EC internationally oriented education as part of their compulsory programmes.

The process of implementing an internationalised home curriculum brings a range of issues to the forefront. These will be discussed below, in conjunction with the research that has been done on them.

PROCESSES, ISSUES AND RESEARCH

Some of the issues and reasons that have prevented or slowed down progress of internationalisation of the curriculum are well known. The first is the fact that internationalisation in its broadest sense is still dominated by traditional notions of outgoing mobility (De Wit, 2011). This is confirmed by the findings from the 3rd global Survey of IAU (Eggen-Polak & Hudson, 2010). The survey report lists additional obstacles to internationalisation. Lack of financial resources comes out as the main obstacles worldwide, followed by lack of involvement of academic staff as well as their lack of expertise in internationalisation and issues around foreign language proficiency. These items do not specifically address internationalisation of the curriculum, but it can be argued that these obstacles are particularly relevant in that respect (Beelen, 2011). A more extensive list of obstacles as perceived by academic staff has been drawn up by Beelen and Leask (2011).

Conceptual notions of internationalisation of the curriculum and their impact have been fairly widely researched and at a relatively early stage. Mestenhauser (1998, 2004, 2006, 2007) wrote a series of articles on the impact of Internationalisation at Home. In Australia, internationalisation of the curriculum has been an ongoing area of research since the mid-1990s. Early work undertaken by Patrick (1997) and Rizvi and Walsh (1998) sought to define meaning and provide a theoretical framing within the Australian context. The ways institutions or (national) educational systems or traditions deal with the concept provide relevant backgrounds to any study of the implementation process. Mestenhauser has demonstrated that the implementation is a far reaching process that, in order to be successful, should and

will address and challenge many existing notions within the teaching and learning processes. Mestenhauser therefore argues that the implementation of Internationalisation requires a *systemic approach* in order to be successful (e.g. Mestenhauser, 2006). This applies to both implementation and governance. The definitions by Leask and Hudzik above underline the far reaching aspects of the process of internationalising the curriculum.

How academic staff deal with these conceptual notions has only recently become a focus of attention. Lemke (2011) has conducted a series of interviews with academic staff at the School of Economics and Management of Hogeschool van Amsterdam, to establish “sensemaking” processes in relation to internationalisation, both at a collective and at an individual level.

There is a considerable body of research on policy building for internationalisation in general, but much less so for policies on curriculum internationalisation. Some of the early work on Internationalisation at Home (Crowther et al., 2001; Nilsson, 2003; Nilsson & Otten, 2003; Beelen, 2007) addresses policy issues specifically for IaH. There is as yet no comparative study in which the development of a dedicated policy for internationalisation of the curriculum has been addressed. Moreover, the extant research tended to focus on institutional policies, whereas it now emerges that implementation of internationalisation of the curriculum requires appropriate policies at faculty and programme levels as well. This may require other types of *leadership for* and *management of* the internationalisation process.

Strategies for increasing the *involvement of academic staff* in the process of internationalisation have recently received some attention (e.g. Childress, 2010), but there is not much extant research in the involvement of academics in the specific process of internationalisation of the curriculum (Leask & Beelen, 2010).

To what extent universities, faculties and individual programmes have articulated *graduate attributes* and to what extent these have been established in relation to professional practice and in conjunction with the world of work, is a fundamental question that determines the scope of the international dimension of programmes. Universities of Applied Sciences or Professional Education apparently take the lead here, since their graduates have a more clearly defined professional profile than those from research universities. In this respect, many research universities are still crippled by the presumption that research is, by and in itself, international. Their graduates will therefore automatically acquire the international skills necessary for their future profession. This assumption leads to research universities looking away from the circumstance that by far the greater majority of their graduates will not become researchers in universities.

Since Universities of Applied Sciences are in a better position to link their international dimension to professional practice and to assess if this conforms to the requirements of the world of work, future research should address these universities first and foremost. The focus on graduate attributes requires future research to take into account the differences between individual programmes, since graduate attributes differ considerably across the fields of study, with maybe teachers and international managers at the extreme ends of the range.

In the Australian context, recent research has started to focus on clarifying meaning within different disciplines and in particular on the links between professional practice, graduate outcomes and

internationalisation of the curriculum and the implications of internationalisation of the curriculum for academic staff (see for example Leask, 1999, 2009; McTaggart & Curro, 2009; Sanderson, 2008). The Questionnaire on Internationalisation of the Curriculum, developed by Leask for the Australian situation is an outcome of this more contextualised approach (Leask, 2011).

A related issue is the support that is given to these processes through *professional development*. The fact that internationalisation of the curriculum is foremost an issue of teaching and learning makes professional development of academic staff an issue that requires attention (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010, pp. 77-78). Professional development of academic staff does not seem particularly effective when approached traditionally, from a specific university wide approach (Caruana & Hanstock, 2008). Experiences made in the Netherlands and in Australia suggest that a contextualised approach to internationalisation of the curriculum may have better results (De Wit & Beelen, 2011; Leask, forthcoming). Professional development should be based on the needs of academic staff. Finally, these issues are also related to the extent in which internationalisation of the curriculum is supported through *human resource policies and incentives*. Van der Werf has, over a number of years, developed a competence matrix for lecturers involved in internationalisation (see Van der Werf, 2012).

The issue of *foreign language proficiency* is one that should be addressed through systematic professional development. This is particularly relevant in settings where English is not the first language of staff and students. The School of Economics and Management at Hogeschool van Amsterdam has monitored the implementation of international, English medium semesters (De Wit & Beelen, forthcoming). This has shown that language issues dominate the implementation process. First, it is still assumed by many that education with an international dimension should be in English but also the reverse: that education in English is international. Students and staff point to the artificial character of education in English by Dutch teaching staff for Dutch students. They furthermore see problems with the level of proficiency in English of staff and students alike, which may lead to a perceived loss of quality.

The international dimension is an integral part of teaching and learning as part of the *formal curriculum*, but is not always explicit. Beelen (2007) distinguishes four types of international classrooms, one of which is the 'classical' international classroom with students from different countries. The other is the virtual international classroom, in which students do not meet physically. Teaching and learning processes in international classrooms have been fairly well researched (see e.g. Bond, 2003a, 2003b; Bond, Qian, & Huang, 2003).

Foreign language aspects play an important role here too. Students tend to stay in their language comfort zones, which leads to a separation between home and international students (Leask, 2010). So far, these processes have been researched only in situations where English is the first language. It remains to be seen if the same processes occur in continental European settings. The role of the lecturer in the international classroom has been described by Teekens (2001, 2003).

The way that learning experiences from the *informal curriculum* contribute to overall student learning have researched and described extensively for the Australian context by Leask (2005, 2009).

Short term mobility as an element of the compulsory programme is one of the instruments that can be deployed as part as a strategy for internationalisation of the curriculum. The impact of this type of mobility can be quite strong when consciously structured and evaluated. The effects of longer versus

shorter term mobility have received some attention (see e.g. Jones, 2010). Less well researched is how learning through compulsory, short term mobility is assessed.

How *assessment* of learning is approached and organised and to what extent it is linked to a deliberate and conscious international dimension, in turn connected to graduate attributes has been researched (Deardorff, 2009; Deardorff, Thorndike Pysarchik, & Yun, 2009). The former includes examples of assessment contextualised to certain disciplines, but the extent to which assessment principles could and should be transferred across regions and countries remains a matter for further research. The strength of assessment procedures is also linked to *quality* of the international education. Much research has been done on quality assurance for internationalisation (see Van Gaalen, 2010) but this is seldom specifically aimed at internationalised curricula. Many institutions seem to be struggling with the consistency of assessment procedures. Malmö University is the institution with the longest conscious history of Internationalisation at Home. Theoretically, studies on its impact should therefore clarify some of the effects but the outcomes seem rather elusive (Bergknut, 2006, 2007).

Finally there is the extent to which *services* have been adapted to facilitate internationalisation of the curriculum, for example to enable incoming mobility of staff and students. Some preliminary research on the involvement of the *International Office* in the process of internationalisation of the curriculum has been done (Beelen, 2007).

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is clear that the research on IaH/IoC is now moving beyond the stage of discussing conceptual notions and implications for higher education in general. The new trend is towards a more contextualised research approach, in which different levels are distinguished: region, country, institution, faculty and programme. This approach clarifies the issues around implementation that are particular to a given context. As yet, there has been no comparative research in which the implementation process is compared across different regions but for the same disciplines.

FUTURE RESEARCH: AN OUTLINE

The overview of progress made in curriculum internationalisation and list of known issues and extant research in the two sections above provide us with the possibility to draft an outline for future research.

Hogeschool van Amsterdam, and particularly the School of Economics and Management, seems well advanced in the global field of internationalisation of the curriculum. This is as far as its policy is concerned. Both the University and the School struggle with issues of implementation (De Wit & Beelen, forthcoming). They would benefit from research into implementation processes at other institutions. Such research could be laid out along the following lines:

- A global, comparative approach which would include institutions in regions and countries where there is a strong focus on Internationalisation at Home: North Western Europe (notably The Netherlands, Flanders, Denmark and Sweden) South Africa, the USA and Australia.

- The comparison would primarily include Universities of Applied Sciences or Professional Education and research universities that have evolved from such institutions, or research universities with strongly developed graduate attributes
- Comparative research would be focused on implementation issues at institutional, faculty and programme levels
- The comparison would include programmes with a variety of graduate attributes, e.g. teacher education, engineering and business. The represents an assumed increasing presence of international orientation within the graduate attributes of those programmes, ranging from a national focus for teachers, who will only be licensed to teach in a specific country, a lesser or greater degree of international orientation for engineers, depending on whether they are educated to work in international settings, either at home or abroad. The international orientation may be presumed most clearly present in business programmes because of their focus on international developments and a body of knowledge that can be considered international.
- The research should address the issue of how and to which extent institutions, faculties and programmes have constructed their graduate attributes in conjunction with the world of work and on the basis of experiences of alumni.
- It should focus on comparing the development of dedicated policies for IaH at the institutions selected. Hogeschool van Amsterdam made a fundamental choice for IaH in its internationalisation policy. This could be compared to other institutional policies in similar and different contexts. Institutional policies should in all cases be researched in their relation to policies at faculty and programme levels in order to determine what their impact is.
- Research should clarify to what extent and how institutions have developed a systematic approach to internationalisation in general and to internationalisation of the curriculum in particular. This includes the question how they have incorporated existing notions on effecting and managing change in educational institutions.
- Research should demonstrate how institutions provide professional development and support to academic and other staff involved in development and governance for internationalisation of the curriculum.
- The aspect of English as a first or a second language both in terms of policies and how this is dealt with in relation to professional development should be part of the research. The institutions selected would be both within and outside the English speaking world
- Research should shed light on if and how institutions, faculties and programmes provide incentives for and recognition of activities that are particularly aimed at internationalisation of the curriculum.
- The comparison should show how the institutions involved have shaped the international dimension in their formal curricula and which instruments and learning environment they use.

- Research should provide an overview of how institutions, faculties and individual programmes deal with the informal curriculum, which learning experiences they expect from that and how consciously they connect these to those in the formal curriculum.
- Procedures used to assess the specific intercultural and international aspects of the curriculum (e.g. through portfolios, mentoring and reflection) should also be researched as well as the reasons for the choice of these procedures.
- There should also be a focus on how and to what extent services, administrative departments and the International Office have been geared to contribute to and support internationalisation of the curriculum.
- An additional aspect of research would be the success factors which institutions, faculties and programmes themselves identify both for past and future development of the international dimension.
- Future research should be done in cooperation with researchers from Australia, and should incorporate knowledge and insights from relevant networks, such as the Special Interest Group on Internationalisation at Home of the European Association for International Education (EAIE) and that on Internationalisation of the Curriculum of the International Education Association of Australia (IEAA).

CONCLUSION

Research into the implementation of Internationalisation at Home has so far been limited. Most research has focused on conceptual notions and their meaning and dates back to middle to late nineties of the 20th century. That there is, so far, little extant research on implementation issues is understandable from the point of view of differences between countries, universities, faculties within those universities and even individual programmes within those faculties. Research on implementation should therefore also be contextualised and should have a global and comparative character.

Hogeschool van Amsterdam seems to be a good basis for such research, which should take place in cooperation with researchers from areas where (views on) internationalisation of the curriculum is well advanced, particularly from Australia.

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TO ASK OR NOT TO ASK; THAT IS THE QUESTION

A FRAMEWORK TO UNDERSTAND THE PROCESSES CHANGE IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS TO INCLUDE INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE IN ITS LEARNING OUTCOMES AND ACADEMIC ENVIRONMENT.

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“We have provided foreign students and staff with all the information they could possibly need in letters, brochures and on the internet. If it is not because of insufficient language capabilities, why do they still ask?”

A MISCONCEPTION: TO BE UNDERSTOOD SPEAK MORE, FASTER AND LOUDER

In the many workshops and training programmes I conducted over the past 25 years the issue of adequate provision of information mentioned in the example above has come up numerous times and in all kinds of variations. Foreign students or staff members who shop from one office to the other to get their questions solved; Contracts between partners that spell out the cooperation in detail and nevertheless lead to misunderstanding; Teachers, who feel confronted with unexpected responses from some of their foreign students; or reverse students, who are confused about what their foreign teacher expects. At first glance the misconception or challenge mentioned above is about information provision. It is the implicit assumption of many international educators that more and better explained information that faster is provided automatically will resolve misunderstandings and bridge value differences with foreign students or staff members. However, when a person has no ears it doesn't matter whether you whisper or shout. He or she will not hear you anyway. Other ways will have to be created to effectively communicate. To help this person to understand you, you will have to understand this person.

In many of their daily practices higher education institutions still assume that cultural differences can be resolved by giving more detailed information, faster; information that is more explicit and when

necessary repeated over time. This daily practice can be compared with a traditional sender – receiver model of communication in which the communication impact is the residue of the message into the gray cells of the receiver. When the message seemingly is not understood, you repeat it maybe in other words, by talking more slowly or louder. The underlying position in this research project is that internationalisation, in order to reach its goal of educating graduates for a globalised multicultural world, requires higher education institutions to look for different more cultural sensitive ways to communicate in their teaching, learning and management. A collaborative approach to the process of communication in the university is needed, in which a standard practice has developed of actively searching and exchanging information and of jointly constructing daily reality in the university. In this approach communication is not seen as an isolated event. It takes place in a series of social interactions in specific cultural and cross-cultural contexts and networks, and which may be intentional or unintentional. The sender is not the only source of information. Various cultural contexts serve as communication sources and may enhance, change or diminish a message¹.

In the international environment that higher education institutions strive to be, a collaborative approach that includes diversity demands high levels of intercultural competence of all participants involved; students, staff, administrators and the leadership. The above described misconception is an example of my experiences and observations over the past years that lead to the initial question for the current research project: “How do universities develop intercultural competence in its constituents?”

INTRODUCTION: INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE AS A LEARNING OUTCOME

The objective of this paper is to discuss a framework that has been developed as a first part of the research project that aims to understand how in the process of internationalisation higher education institutions have changed to include intercultural competence in its learning outcomes and in its academic environment.

Most European universities one way or the other have adopted an international dimension in their strategies, responding to the European and global development of our economies and labour markets. Even when universities continue to serve national economies and labour markets this takes place within an international context where local events and developments more than ever directly affect societies, communities and firms worldwide and within an ever shorter time span. Globalization is the given that requires universities to rethink what type of new knowledge and what type of graduates our future societies need. Is higher education designed in such a way that it enhances development of intercultural competence in and outside the classroom, that delivers graduates to function in a globalised world? What does globalization imply for the expected learning outcomes of our curricula?

When reviewing the strategies on internationalization of European universities we found that developing intercultural competence in students is one of the learning outcomes that often is mentioned. One of the early and most common strategies implemented by HEI's to develop intercultural competence in its students is study abroad or student mobility. Related to the limited number of students and staff that can be reached through mobility the focus within the higher education institutions (HEI's) has shifted

¹ Adapted from: Van Woerkom, C. & van Meegeren, P. (Ed). *Basisboek Communicatie en Verandering*, Boom Amsterdam, 1999.

from offering courses in English and stimulating student and staff mobility to including internationalisation at home (Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998; Teichler, 1999). By developing an international dimension in the curricula and diversifying student and staff populations on campus the new adagio 'internationalisation at home' has quickly gained ground since then (i.e. Nilsson & Otten, (2003); Teekens, 2007). Study abroad gives mobile students the exposure to a culturally different environment, while at the same time home students may benefit from the international classroom.

However, studies on the impact of study abroad and student mobility mainly focus on the mobile students, on the classroom level, on the experience of individual students or on the impact on careers of graduates. Although some factors seem to influence the development of intercultural competence such as length of stay, previous experience abroad and language ability (i.e. Graff, 2004; Littrell & Eduardo, 2005; Paige, Fry, Stallman, Jon, & Josic, 2009; Vande Berg, Connor-Linton & Paige, 2009) the literature is inconclusive as to which strategies and activities actually lead to the development of intercultural competence in students (Hammer, 2008). In recent years concern has been raised about the integration of foreign and home students on campus. Outside the classroom the interaction between the various groups of students seems limited; students seem to interact primarily with students from their own country of origin or in case of foreign students with other foreigners. A key question seems unresolved. What is the learning environment needed to help transform an international campus into a learning environment that allows for development of intercultural competence for all and how can we create that environment? In this research project we try to explore which changes have evolved and are evolving on campus, in and outside the classroom, to allow development of intercultural competence for all. Data are gathered with the help of on-site university visits. The on-site visits focus on European universities in non- Anglophone countries, who at an early stage adopted the structural reforms proposed by the Bologna Agreement

For the definition of intercultural competence and its development this paper follows Deardorff's (2006) pyramid model of intercultural competence in conjunction with the revised developmental model of intercultural competence of Hammer (2008). The proposed framework is grounded in the theory and research on organisational change of Trompenaars and Woolliams (2003). The framework consist of two parts; a learning model for the development of intercultural competence; and a mechanism that describes the process of change that universities have gone through to include intercultural competence in its learning outcomes and in its academic environment. Its function is to help organise and analyze the data gathered at the visited European universities.

A LEARNING MODEL FOR INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE

Intercultural competence is a psychological construct, which cannot be measured directly. It represents an individual's cognitive organisation, motivation, attitudes and behaviour related to dealing with diversity in the construction of meaning in daily life. Deardorff (2006) formalised the definition of intercultural competence into the pyramid model for intercultural competence, which has found worldwide scholarly acceptance. According to this model intercultural competence refers to behaving and communicating effectively and appropriately in cross-cultural situations, based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes, to achieve one's goals to some degree. The model describes intercultural competence as a process in which attitudes like respect for different cultures and values, openness and curiosity lead to

cultural self-awareness, emphatic understanding of other cultures, and the ability and willingness to behave accordingly. Intercultural competence is developmental in nature (Bennett, 1993). His theoretical model is referred to as the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) and describes how individuals or organisations may progress from more ethnocentric worldviews towards a more global mindset, in which cultural self-awareness and the in depth understanding of value differences lead to mindful and effective changes in behaviour and communication styles appropriate to a specific cultural different context. The DMIS formed the basis of the Intercultural Development Inventory (Bennett & Hammer, 1997, revised by Hammer 2008) a cross-culturally validated self-assessment instrument that empirically measures orientations toward cultural difference.

One of the questions in the research project focuses on how universities in Europe have changed their learning model to enhance intercultural competence in its students. A learning model refers to sets of implicit or explicit assumptions, values and beliefs related to developing intercultural competence university leaders and managers use in their policy making and professors and teachers in their daily education practices. In this study we intend to find out how intercultural competence is defined at university and curriculum level and which implicit and / or explicit learning models universities use to develop intercultural competence. In this study the learning model for intercultural competence is described according to the labels in table 1.

Labels describing the learning model for intercultural competence	
▪	Definition of intercultural competence
▪	Focus for developing intercultural competence
▪	Target group
▪	Learning outcomes
▪	Learning activities
▪	Assessment of learning outcomes
▪	Quality control

TABLE 1: LABELS DESCRIBING THE LEARNING MODEL FOR INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE

Three variables are identified that are expected to be of influence on the learning model and explain differences in how universities develop intercultural competence in its students: the dominant world view on diversity in the institution; assumptions on the nature of the scientific discipline; assumptions on the process of teaching and learning. Figure 1 describes the relationship between the three explaining variables, the learning model and the learning outcome of intercultural competence. Culture is seen as the context within which these relationships take form. Culture influences the way in which individuals in an organisation interact with each other and with the organisation. Depending on the level of analysis culture can refer to various levels of culture, i.e. organisational cultural or national culture. At this stage it suffices to state that the organisational culture is embedded in the macro context of the national culture. However universities as professional organisations may have important characteristics in common across national cultures.

The dominant world view in the institutions determines the focus of the learning activities (what) the target groups (for whom) and how for instance assessment and quality control are tailored. It refers to the extent an institution includes diversity in its daily reality. In the analysis of the data we will use the categories as defined in the revised model of intercultural sensitivity (Hammer, 2008). In table 2 we developed a hypothetical projection of the impact of ethnocentric and a global mind set in the learning model for developing intercultural competence.

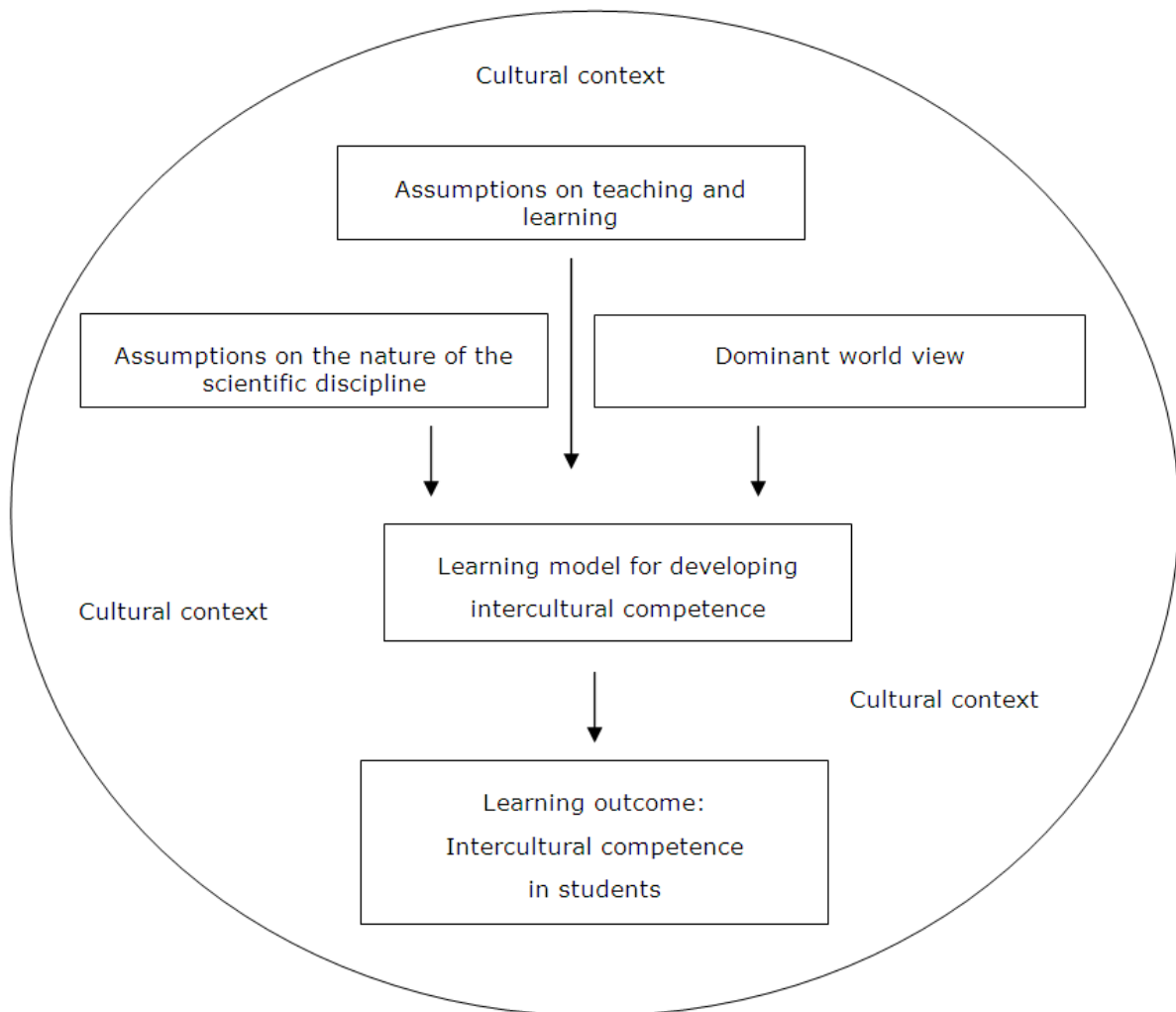


FIGURE 1: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LEARNING MODEL, THE LEARNING OUTCOME OF INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE AND THE THREE EXPLAINING VARIABLES IN THE CONTEXT OF CULTURE.

Projection for the impact of worldview on the learning model for developing intercultural competence		
Education / worldview	Ethnocentric	Global mindset
Definition of intercultural competence	Understanding of how things function in the host culture	Cultural sensitive behaviour; realizing the relative validity of the chosen behaviour; awareness of interdependency
Focus for developing intercultural competence	How can newcomers benefit / learn from us	Creating collaborative intercultural dialogue and understanding
Target group	Mobile students	Mobile and non mobile students and staff
Learning outcomes	Bringing up to standard	Creating added value
Learning activities	Instrumental; outside the curriculum	Developmental; in the curriculum; part of HRM strategy
Assessment of learning outcomes	According to host culture norms	According to jointly agreed norms
Quality control	Single loop	International benchmark Double loop

TABLE 2: PROJECTION FOR THE IMPACT OF WORLD VIEW ON THE LEARNING MODEL FOR DEVELOPING INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE

The nature of the scientific discipline includes assumptions on the relevance of intercultural competence for the academic discipline and the professional functioning in the labour market (why). Additionally this variable is expected to impact the organization for developing intercultural competence (how). Teichler (2007) argues that related to the dimension of universalism different objectives for internationalization – among which developing intercultural competence - may be formulated. The extent to which the core of a scientific discipline (Substanz des Wissens) is more or less universal is expected to explain differences with regard to learning objectives for developing intercultural competence and the organization of the learning activities in relation to the core of the curriculum. In this research project we identified four categories of scientific disciplines: universal disciplines; disciplines with universal theories including national regional variations in application; disciplines with culture as part of the core of the discipline; and disciplines in which comparing cultures form the core of the discipline. At this point in the project we do not consider these categories fixed or mutually exclusive.

The variable of assumptions on teaching and learning refers to the values and beliefs on how students best learn and consequently need to be taught or vice versa how they need to be taught to ensure the maximum learning outcome. Key elements are assumptions and beliefs regarding the learning process. How to address the learning styles, the need for structure and perceptual modalities? What are the

implications for the learning process of the assumptions and beliefs of the students' motivation to learn? How do the assumptions and beliefs regarding the roles of the teacher and the students influence the learning model? A formalized model for learning process is the learning cycle, first developed by Kolb (1984) and revised by Krathwohl (2008). Effective learning takes place when students go through the full learning cycle from experience, reflection, conceptualization to experimentation. Depending on the various assumptions regarding teaching and learning the learning process for example can be approached from abstract theories in contrast to concrete examples; from intuitive knowing in contrast to factual knowledge; in a sequential order in contrast to associative learning; or from logic argumentation and analysis in contrast to developing integrative ideas and seeing the "big picture".

Where some believe that students are intrinsically motivated; others assume that incentives and control are essential. Some teachers state that students are responsible for their own learning outcomes and perceive the role of a teacher in terms of guidance or counseling (Hermans & Pusch, 2004). In contrast others assume that a teacher as the expert in the field is responsible for directing the learning of a student. Additionally there are differences in beliefs regarding individual or team approaches to learning. Differences in assumptions on teaching and learning primarily influence *how* intercultural competence is developed. This refers to the type learning activities that are offered, like for instance theoretical self-study, lectures, discussions and exchange of ideas; case studies or experiments; to the sequencing of the learning activities and to how learning is assessed. Culture plays a major role with regard to the value and beliefs on teaching and learning (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2004). We expect to find that assumptions on teaching and learning intercultural competence in the universities that participate in the site visit reflect the national cultural values with regard to education.

PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR THE PROCESS OF CHANGE

In the literature internationalisation has also been referred to as a process of change (Knight, 2004). In this research project we specifically address the questions of why and how universities participating in the study have changed their learning model to include intercultural competence in its learning outcomes. During the onsite visits we intend to find out which implicit or explicit models for developing intercultural competence are evolving in universities and which are the related processes of change. Which are / were the obstacles or dilemma's the institutions (or the related scientific disciplines) are / were confronted with in the change process and how are / have been these dilemmas resolved? We are specifically interested in the mechanisms driving this process of change and to what extent they are effective in terms of developing intercultural development.

The mechanism modelled in figure 2 explains the process of change in the learning model in the context of Trompenaars and Woolliams (2003) model for organisational change. According to Trompenaars and Woolliams (ibid) culture influences the way in which individuals in organisations interact with each other and with that organisation. In their theory of change culture is not just one of the elements in a change process. An organisation is defined as a cultural entity which provides the context in which organisational change evolves. As culture influences the "Why -", "What-" and "How- questions" that are commonly used to deal with organisational design and change, they seek to integrate culture in all steps of organisational design and change. Basic assumption in their theory is that culture is inherently

conservative and functions to preserve what worked well in the past. Therefore, successful change processes according to Trompenaars and Woolliams (ibid) are more incremental and take place in learning loops than synoptic in which the old organization includes the new and desired values and practices instead of replacing the old organizational values and practices. However this does not exclude that change may also be sudden and radical.

In terms of the process of change resulting from internationalisation the mechanism depicted in figure 2 the “why change” refers to internal or external pressure on the university to change its learning model to include intercultural competence as a learning outcome. The “who and what to change” refer to the learning model, its specific university environment, the curriculum, the staffing, and the resource allocation. “How to change” refers to the assumptions of university leaders and managers on how change best can be accomplished. This process of change is expected to lead to tensions between existing values as expressed by learning model A and the desired new ones as expressed in learning model A+ as a result of seemingly conflicting or opposing values. Such an observed tension is called a dilemma when the conflict refers to two desirable opposites and when there is an ongoing interdependency between the opposites.

The following example serves to clarify this definition of a dilemma. Traditionally universities are organised in separate faculties with an overarching leadership or governance structure, be it an executive board, a rectorship or a vice-chancellorship. In many universities tension can be observed about where the focus for strategy development and decision making should lie; at faculty level or at the overarching level? There are positive and negative aspects connected to both ends of this central – de-central axis. The debate is ongoing as there is interdependency between the faculties and the leadership with regard to strategic development and decision making. The one cannot survive without the other. A dilemma is considered reconciled when solutions are created that include the positive elements of both opposites of the axis – central and de-central -, while at the same time mitigating the negatives ones. Reconciled solutions build on an accurate and complete picture of the two extremes of the axis. Johnson (1996) referred to this complete picture a polarity map. These solutions are not static; they are ongoing as reality in a university daily is constructed by its constituents at the central and the de-central levels of the university.

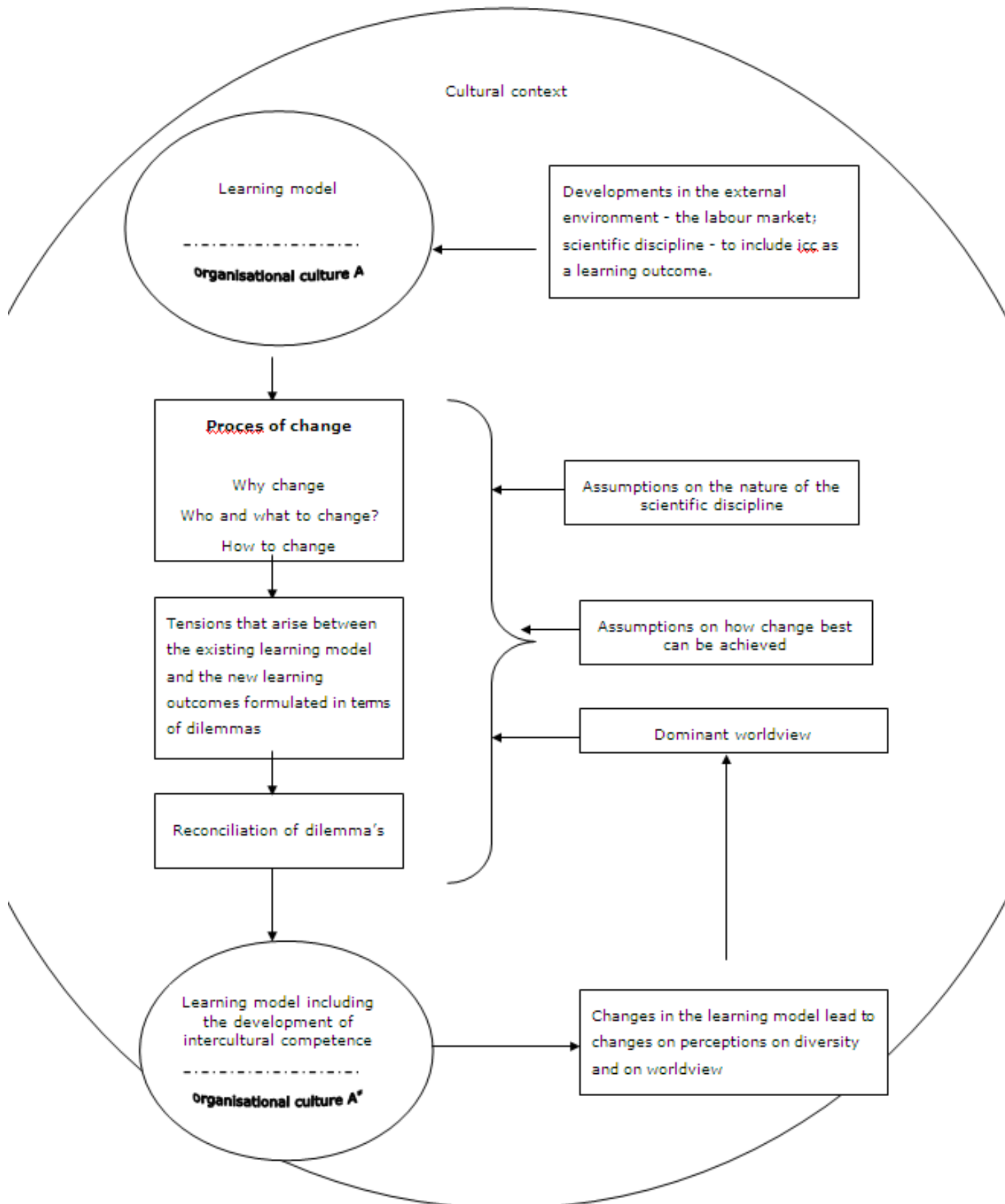


FIGURE 2: PROCESS OF CHANGE IN THE LEARNING MODEL IN THE CONTEXT OF TROMPENAARS AND WOOLIAMs

In this research project we will study the process of organisational change, and how universities resolve sets of dilemmas that arise between the existing and desired sets of values to include intercultural competence as a learning outcome. Higher education institutions that seek to develop intercultural competence in their students are expected to develop from a mono-cultural orientation to a culturally inclusive orientation (Hermans, 2007). Universities that perceive diversity as an asset and to gain maximally from this diversity are considered inclusive in their orientation towards cultural differences (i.e. O'Hara-Devereaux & Johansen, 1994; Hofner Saphiere, 1996; Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001; Trompenaars & Hampton-Turner, 1993). More concretely this implies:

- A general awareness can be observed in the institution of the need for diversity to drive innovation and to educate graduates for a globalised labour market. Cultural differences are seen as fundamental resources to the functioning of the university.
- There is a general awareness of the interdependency between culturally different constituents in and outside the organisation and a mutual willingness to contribute to and to advance the university's goals.
- In the inclusive university an attitude can be observed of interest in different ways of thinking and behaving. Differences are used as opportunities for learning, also about oneself. Dilemmas between conflicting values are addressed and resolved in ways that allow all participants to reach their goals to some degree. This attitude results in change to accommodate cultural difference.
- Provision of information is sensitive to cultural differences and accessible for all. This implies that time is invested in contextualizing information and information flows for the various culturally different constituents in the university. Clarity and relevance of information are checked or developed jointly with constituents. Constructing accessible information results in the university learning about itself and its constituents thereby strengthening a joint sense of strategic direction of the university.
- Power is shared. Within the legal context of a specific university and with respect for the various roles and responsibility of the leadership in the university influence is given in the governance and further strategic advancement of the university. Sharing power is what is meant with to allow constituents to reach their goals to some degree. It will result in a sense of belonging, community and commitment to the university organisation giving an impulse to quality and productivity.
- There is an investment in human relationships. There are opportunities for intercultural communication training for all and these are part of the curriculum or the HRM policy. Social activities are jointly organised outside the working environment giving constituents the opportunity to meet on different terms. This results in social cohesion and strengthens trust among university constituents.

We expect to observe the reconciliation of dilemmas and the related communication processes that facilitate reconciliation of dilemmas in universities that tend to be culturally inclusive in contrast to mono-

cultural university organisations. In mono-cultural universities we expect to observe solutions aiming at assimilation and adaptation, cultural parallel solutions or compromises. In these latter institutions reconciliation of dilemmas does not (yet) take place. The related communication processes are not organised in such a way to effectively deal with the dilemmas that arise from the changes that are desired to include intercultural competence as a learning outcome.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The objective of this paper has been to present a framework that is developed to understand how in the process of internationalisation higher education institutions have changed to include intercultural competence in its learning outcomes and in its academic environment. The framework serves as a theoretical basis for the interviews that are being held at the universities participating in this study and as a framework for analysis of the data collected at the onsite visits. We have found universities in Austria, Spain and Denmark willing to participate in this research project. In each country a comprehensive university, a university for professional education and a life sciences university are included. Next to interviews with university leadership and policymakers in the area of internationalization, program coordinators from a broad range of disciplines and home and foreign students are interviewed. In this way we hope to capture a complete and information rich picture of the changes that are developing in European higher education to include intercultural competence as a learning outcome and to gain understanding of the mechanisms that drive these changes.

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In 2008 Jeanine received the Bo Gregersen Award for Best Practice for an innovative contribution to international education of the European Association of International Education. Currently she serves as a member of the General Council of the EAIE. Jeanine has been awarded the official status of EAIE senior trainer and is a member of the professional development committee of the EAIE. In June 2011 Jeanine has been appointed Honorary Member of the IROICA network, the standing committee for internationalisation of ICA, the European Association of Life Science universities.

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Presentations in this symposium and the subsequent inaugural lecture (De Wit, 2011) challenge assumptions about internationalisation. This chapter questions traditional assumptions about the ineffectiveness of short-term mobility programmes, specifically considering international volunteering programmes run by a university in the north of England.

Increasing and diverse pressures on institutions to internationalise mean that the concept of internationalisation has “moved from the fringe of institutional interest to the very core” (Brandenburg and De Wit, 2010: 31) and it is now an “institutional imperative, not just a desirable possibility” (Hudzik, 2011, p. 7). Yet, according to Caruana (2010), there is little common understanding of the term. Different conceptualisations of internationalisation have emerged according to university mission, aims and strategies for achieving these.

An overarching framework for an institution-wide approach has been described as ‘holistic and values-driven internationalisation’ (Jones, 2004), while the term commonly used in the USA is ‘comprehensive internationalisation’ (see for example Olsen et al., 2005). Hudzik (2011) offers a broad definition of this as, ‘A commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research and service missions of higher education. It shapes institutional ethos and values and touches the entire HE enterprise. It is essential that it be embraced by institutional leadership, governance, faculty, students, and all academic service and support units.” (Hudzik, 2011, p. 6).

A broad conceptualisation of internationalisation which goes beyond economically-driven international student recruitment and trans-national programmes offers the kind of international education envisaged by a range of proponents such as Alred et al. (2003), Byram (eg 2006), Ellingboe

(1998) and Mestenhauser (eg. 1998). It has been argued that the ultimate purpose of internationalisation is to enhance the multicultural experience of education and through this the employability of graduates (Archer, 2005) or 'to produce graduates capable of solving problems in a variety of locations with cultural and environmental sensitivity.' Aulakh et al. (1997, p. 15). Others subscribe to a more values-based objective or the development of the 'Global Soul' (Bennett, 2008), as illustrated in this view from Iran:

The concept of intercultural learning and dialogue lays the foundation for a shifting sense of one's place in the global arena, from the egocentric and individualist to the concept of integral global diversity, which privileges tolerance, solidarity and a mutual sense of understanding.
(Jassbi, 2004: 1)

The quest for the kind of transformational internationalisation articulated here was a core principle in Leeds Metropolitan University's 'values-driven' approach as outlined in Jones (2008).

INTERNATIONAL VOLUNTEERING

Two elements of the university's internationalisation strategy were 'enhancing the international student experience' and 'enhancing the international experiences of home [domestic] students', with the commitment to 'offer students broader opportunities to develop an international ethos and perspective' through a range of means including, 'opportunities for international and/or intercultural volunteering'. (Leeds Met, 2004, p. 3). International volunteering was envisaged as an alternative to Study Abroad, taking place during vacation periods for 3-4 weeks at a time and offering international mobility and learning opportunities for those unable or unwilling to take time out during the academic year to study or work overseas. Equally it would also be available to international students, whether on full-time programmes or those taking part in international exchanges. Thus international and domestic students would work together on volunteering projects towards a common goal.

Received wisdom suggested that only longer-term mobility programmes could offer the kind of cultural immersion which might result in transformational learning (Mezirow, 1991). Indeed three months has been quoted as the 'minimal time in which significant culture learning may take place' (Martin, 1987, quoted in Hoff, 2008). And yet ongoing research, initially reported in Jones (2010) indicates clearly the transformational impact on domestic and international students of even short term programmes if these are appropriately designed and delivered. Students both demonstrate and report such change in terms of personal growth, intercultural competence development, employability skills, resilience and confidence. It is clear from this research that the length of the mobility programme is less crucial than other factors as the following findings, with quotations from Jones (2010), will show.

1. When compared with study abroad, volunteering offers a very different lived experience. Students report that, rather than merely being outside their personal comfort zone, seeing for themselves that they have made a difference to someone's life is key to the transformational impact of volunteering:

[Studying in Japan is interesting but] you kind of live in a place that long that it becomes routine ... Japanese culture is obviously very different but in a sense you're still... in a similar environment... still ... in university. But if you do volunteering, you meet people from very different walks of life who maybe don't have the opportunity that you have. I think in a way it sort of shows you what is important in life and what isn't.

2. This kind of volunteering programme offers the opportunity to reflect on personal priorities and values in a short space of time and there is clear evidence of students 'doubt[ing] the superiority of their own cultural values.' (Selby, 2008, p. 4). Questioning one's own identity, culture and values is quoted throughout the literature as a fundamental step in developing intercultural competence (eg Savicki (2008) passim).

You meet people from different countries that have totally different views of everything and then you start to question your own..[how you have].. been brought up....

3. Cross-cultural development and enhanced multi-cultural understanding is evident throughout students' testimonies, such as here:

Before I went on the trip I was beginning to think about multi-culturalism..but... it's actually meeting people who are different and.. sharing experiences with them in the rawest human form. It's just completely cemented my faith... in the fact that we are all equal and different and that this should be celebrated. And now that's cemented all I can do is build on that with what I do with my life.

4. Transferable and employability skills are developed through this kind of international volunteering programme. These include patience, resilience, sensitivity, mediation skills, team work, leadership and organisational skills:

[I've had] quite a few different interviews... and it helps... 300% to have the opportunities of going abroad...

5. Some students have had such life-changing experiences that it has resulted in changed priorities and future direction:

When I leave uni I want to go into this sector, in humanitarian aid work with sport in developing countries.

CHANGE IN PRACTICE FOLLOWING INITIAL RESEARCH

The value of such programmes having been demonstrated clearly from the initial research, it was timely to review practice and adjust the programme accordingly, with several changes being made. It was evident from the original research that early participants were what was termed 'risk junkies' (Jones, 2010). All

reported enjoying the thrill of doing something new, even describing how they have always sought out such opportunities. In order to attract students who might need more encouragement to overcome initial timidity, a series of changes were made to the programme. Firstly, the degree of 'challenge' in each project is now made clear on the website from the earliest stage of promotion. This offers potential participants guidance on how much personal discomfort, cross-cultural challenge or linguistic difficulty might be involved in each project to raise awareness of the challenges and enable applicants to select a project suited to their personality and degree of confidence or experience.

Secondly, the financial support offered to students was adjusted. Initially all received a 50% contribution to the cost from university funds in order to build interest and to establish volunteering as a continuing initiative. Following the preliminary research, three bands were created, with students receiving more or less of a contribution depending on their personal circumstances as measured by the Student Loans Company, an independent body which establishes via means testing whether UK students should pay full fee, no fee or part fee for their university tuition fees. The students who pay no fee were deemed to have the lowest financial means, and thus the greatest difficulty in paying for the volunteering programme, and as a result received the most support and so on. Interestingly, when the number of students in each band was measured a year later as a function of the total number taking part, there were roughly one third in each of the bands. This indicated that we were reaching a good cross-section of the student body as far as ability to pay is concerned. While this is not an exact measure of socio-economic background it was felt to be a sufficient proxy since conducting our own means testing would have resulted in complications and delays. At the same time, more projects with a lower fee for participation were introduced enabling more students to take part overall.

The third change in practice was to identify in advance the specific transferable or employability skills which participants should hope to develop as part of each project. While it is rare to find students who want to volunteer simply in order to enhance their employability on graduation, there is no doubt that this is an important benefit of the programmes. It was felt to be important that students' awareness was raised of such potential in order that they would be able to articulate clearly to potential employers exactly how the experience had developed their skills, so this is now identified for each project. In addition, the volunteering team organises employability skills training as part of the preparation for and review of each volunteering programme, in collaboration with the university's Careers Service. Only anecdotal evidence is available as yet but feedback from volunteers has been extremely positive.

Finally, greater emphasis has been placed on offering intercultural volunteering in our local community for those unable or unwilling to travel overseas. Volunteering has always been a strong feature of student life at Leeds Metropolitan University and these opportunities have been extended to enable participants to experience other 'cultures'. These include mentoring and supporting refugees and asylum seekers; volunteering in Sikh Gurdwaras and with other religious groups; working in a home for severely disabled young people; working in a women's refuge and in a drug rehabilitation centre.

INTERNATIONAL VOLUNTEERING FOR STAFF

But what of the staff taking part in international volunteering alongside students as team leaders or regular volunteers? In recognition of the developmental benefit of this work and in order to increase the

number of volunteers, the university ‘donated’ half of the project time, with staff taking the other half as annual leave and in the first three years the university also contributed 50% of the costs. This meant that international volunteering was within the means of the vast majority of staff, both academic and professional support. The second phase of research, undertaken in September 2010, focused on whether there had been a similar impact on them, on their work with students and on the internationalisation of Leeds Metropolitan University.

From 2006 up to the time of data collection, around 123 staff had taken part and 75 were still working at the university. Of these 23 (31%) were academics and 52 (69%) professional support staff who had volunteered in the following 17 countries:

Greece	Poland	Romania	Mexico	USA	Egypt
South Africa	The Gambia	India	Indonesia	Jordan	Nepal
Sri Lanka	Thailand	Brazil	Peru	Australia	

A three-part questionnaire was emailed to these 75 members of staff, seeking open-ended responses, with a one-paragraph limit, to each of three questions:

1. How do you feel you have developed as a person from taking part in international volunteering?
2. How has your volunteering experience contributed to the work you do with students back in Leeds, whether UK or International?
3. How do you feel the experience has impacted on the way you do your job?

They were asked to respond within a maximum of three days. This resulted in 39 responses in total, a 52% return rate. 13 of the 23 academics responded (a 56% return rate) and 26 of the 52 support staff responded (a 50% return rate). Results are reported below in each of these three categories.

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

With regard to personal development, staff consistently reported that they had developed a range of transferable skills, including the following:

- team work and team leadership
- organisational skills and project management
- problem solving
- networking
- mediation skills and conflict resolution
- interpersonal skills
- confidence
- decision making (and communicating unpopular decisions)
- willingness to take risks
- creativity
- managing expectations
- resilience

In addition almost all respondents reported a better understanding of their personal strengths and weaknesses, values, goals and priorities. Typical comments include: “I have reconnected with myself, realised that some of the things I once believed were important to me are no longer relevant” and “Volunteering is a very levelling experience”. Others talked of greater sensitivity to global and ecological

issues and a number took the decision to develop their language skills. Even seasoned travellers found that volunteering offered new perspectives. This comment comes from someone who formerly worked as a writer for Lonely Planet travel guides: “The experience of working alongside Sri Lankans on Sri Lankan projects gave me added insights into how the developing world works. Whereas previously I had been an observer, volunteering allowed me to become a participant and form lasting relationships with people and the country.”

Other comments, while made by a single individual, indicate the broad-ranging impact of these experiences: ‘I am a much happier person... I rediscovered the world and how fun it is through the eyes of the young children [we] worked with, I laugh and smile more.’; ‘I am less afraid of flying.’; ‘My sense of what is luxury has changed.’

Of particular interest was the frequent reporting of enhanced personal skills which contribute to the development of cross-cultural capability or intercultural competence, for example:

- “understanding and appreciation of different social, economic and ethnic groups”
- addressing personal stereotypes
- effective communication when a language is not shared
- considering alternative perspectives
- effective working in a different cultural environment
- compassion and empathy
- humility and respect
- patience
- flexibility and open-mindedness

Importantly these were reported both by academic and professional support staff and lay an important foundation for heightened cross-cultural understanding.

CONTRIBUTION TO WORK WITH STUDENTS

As might be expected from working alongside students away from the classroom or tutorial context, academic staff reported a range of benefits arising from the experience including enhanced teaching and personal tutoring skills; inspiration for student projects, internships and research projects; real-life examples and materials; new contacts and networks; motivation for research; greater understanding of the needs of international students and those from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Several academics incorporated optional international volunteering modules into their formal curriculum after taking part.

The most frequently cited outcome for academics, however, was greater respect for students as a result of seeing the full range of their skills as opposed to merely those which are demonstrated in an academic environment. Here is one typical comment: ‘I had become a lecturer who had forgotten how it is to be a student and who students are...[I] believed that my module is “the most important thing” in their lives [I had become] very much detached from the fact that they had their own lives and other priorities...Volunteering has brought back the student perspective to my working life.’

Professional support staff made interesting comments on how the volunteering experience had contributed to their work with students, including one who said it had ‘instilled me with a passion to encourage as many students as possible to have their own international experience.’ Other outcomes included:

- Better understanding of the importance of cultural identity
- Respect for students and understanding of their priorities and expectations
- Ideas for new ways to nurture students and enhance their experience
- Enhanced engagement with students

This is an important benefit from these programmes. It might be expected that academic staff have frequent opportunities to engage with students, but this may be more difficult for support staff who can be ‘behind the scenes’. If the university is to succeed in its holistic approach to internationalisation, it is crucial that professional support staff develop such insight into the student experience and how international experiences can enhance their personal development and employability skills. Equally, better engagement of support staff with students and ‘ideas for new ways to nurture’ them (see above) will make an important contribution to enhancing the student experience as a whole within the university.

CONTRIBUTION TO THE WAY YOU DO YOUR JOB

Support staff identified a number of ways in which the volunteering experience had enhanced their professional lives including:

- better relationships with colleagues (either those on the trip or those who supported them, for example in fundraising for the project)
- [the experience has made me] “more enthusiastic about taking on new opportunities and challenges which I might previously have viewed negatively.”
- “made me enthusiastic about my role to promote studying and interculturalisation within the Uni.”
- “..keen to get involved in activities outside of my usual work remit..”
- “useful to be reminded that there are alternative approaches [in other countries] to those which can be taken for granted.”
- “new drive, ambition and determination to .. give everything I do my best shot!!!!” (sic)

Academic staff reported positive impact on the way they do their job including better work–life balance, increased job satisfaction and commitment to the benefit of volunteering as a learning tool as well as to internationalisation more broadly. Some have continued to engage with the organisation for whom they volunteered. Specific comments included:

- [I am] “even more committed to encouraging students (and staff) to engage [with international opportunities]”
- [It] “improved the way I relate to home and international students”

- “I became a much more effective, appreciative and happier member of staff.”
- “I feel much more prepared and confident to facilitate students to consider the impact of international health policies...and to consider the cultural impacts that may affect how they work with others.”

To summarise, the benefit to the university of enabling staff to take part in these volunteering programmes was put succinctly by one member of professional support staff, “If you put all the staff who had volunteered in one room and had another room of people who hadn’t... you would see a marked difference in networking, willingness to get involved, consideration for others and general interest in those around them.”

ANALYSIS

The responses shown here and in the fuller replies to the questionnaire, provided information and feedback which is of value not only to the team organising the international volunteering programme but also to the Human Resources Division, in terms of staff development, and to those responsible for the overall approach to internationalisation. Given that the benefits to individuals shown here were articulated in one way or another by all those responding, it can be assumed that if more staff can be encouraged and supported to take part in international or local intercultural volunteering, such outcomes could be scaled up to an increasing proportion of the staff body. Not only is it clear that internationalisation is having an impact and being supported across the institution but these results also indicate that such programmes are of general benefit to the way staff relate to students and how they can enhance their experience at university. The student experience is a key concern for the UK as rising tuition fees result in intensified competition between universities and increasingly demanding students. Convincing results of this kind suggest that an alternative approach to staff development may reward those universities bold enough to extend such opportunities to a wide range of staff, both academic and professional support.

The results shown in this chapter for both staff and students plainly begin to challenge assumptions made about the limited impact which short-term international programmes can have. Not only have students developed personally and enhanced their employability skills but academic and support staff have demonstrated important gains. These include enhanced personal and transferable skills, enriched relations with both students and colleagues and improved support for the university and its goals. However, it is important to remember that such programmes need to be set up very carefully in order to be effective. This is not the place to go into detail of operational matters but a number of key elements are worth noting. Firstly it is important to be clear on how international volunteering fits with institutional objectives and in particular how it contributes to internationalisation more broadly so that staff and students can see its value. Secondly, a means of evaluation should be established from the beginning to ensure that the programme’s aims are being achieved. Thirdly, staff and students need time for reflection in order for these benefits to be realised. This is now firmly built in to the Leeds Metropolitan international volunteering programmes, in the preparation and review stages but also on-programme when team leaders encourage the group to reflect at the end of each day. Finally, if the benefits identified

by staff are to result in real change within the organisation, staff need to be supported in embedding the kind of outcomes identified here. The experiences should not simply be forgotten once staff have returned but rather incorporated into academic curriculum or into the roles and relationships of support staff. The opportunity to talk to colleagues about volunteering experiences is greatly valued by staff and can stimulate the interest of others in taking part.

Involving the widest range of support staff can be of great value and, at Leeds Metropolitan, staff from the following sections have all taken part:

FINANCE AND PURCHASING	HUMAN RESOURCES
REGISTRY AND COURSE ADMINISTRATION	MARKETING AND COMMUNICATIONS
STUDENT SERVICES	VICE CHANCELLOR'S OFFICE
LEGAL AND GOVERNANCE	HEALTH AND SAFETY TEAM
LIBRARY	UNIVERSITY SPORT
CATERING AND ACCOMMODATION	

All these areas have an impact on the student experience and indeed many have frequent contact with international students. It can only be of benefit to have staff in these sections with such direct experience of working alongside students and an enhanced understanding of internationalisation. As noted earlier in this chapter, "It is essential that [comprehensive internationalisation] be embraced by institutional leadership, governance, faculty, students, and all academic service and support units." (my underlining) (Hudzik 2011, p. 6). However, while the benefits for staff, and by extension the wider university, of international volunteering are evident from the research outlined here, students should be the main beneficiaries. The quotation below is from a student who had just completed her first year.

I put on the Hijab ... to show respect but also just really wanted to feel what it was like to be them. And ... the sun was setting and the call to prayer was just echoing around the city ... I was one person in their world compared to in this country ... [where I'm] in the majority and ... I thought ... this is a milestone in my life.
(from Jones, 2010)

Reaching students at an early phase of university life, offering transformational experiences and enabling them to consider alternative perspectives continues to be a goal at Leeds Metropolitan University, which is now introducing 'A Global Outlook' as one of three graduate attributes in its 2011 curriculum review. Ongoing research will consider the long-term impact on students as they complete their studies and move on to employment. There will be more in-depth research with staff and, to complete the survey of participating partners, the host volunteer organisations are being surveyed to establish whether similar benefits extend to them. Something which began as an alternative to student exchange programmes, which received wisdom suggested would offer no significant impact on those taking part, has offered unanticipated rewards for all involved, including myself as researcher.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

ELSPETH JONES is emerita professor of the Internationalisation of Higher Education, and past International Dean at Leeds Metropolitan University, where she was responsible for leading internationalisation across the University. She has over 25 years of experience in international learning, teaching, assessment and cross-cultural issues, and worked for the British Council in Japan and Singapore for seven years. Her publications include the edited collection *Internationalisation and the Student Voice* (Routledge 2010) and *Internationalising Higher Education* (edited with Sally Brown) (Routledge 2007). She co-authored the i-Graduate report for the International Unit of UUK with Will Archer and Jessica Davison entitled *A UK Guide to Enhancing the International Student Experience* (2010). Elspeth has delivered keynote speeches around the world and has published widely on issues in comprehensive internationalisation. She is a member of the Editorial Advisory Board of the *Journal of Studies in International Education* and Visiting Professor at the University of Zagreb.


In her role as International Dean, Elspeth was responsible for introducing International Volunteering at Leeds Met to offer international and intercultural experiences for UK students. This continues to be her principal field of research interest, along with the link between internationalisation and multiculturalism. She was responsible for setting up CAPRI, the Centre for Academic Practice and Research in Internationalisation, of which she was Joint Director with its current director, Dr. Viv Caruana.

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IDENTIFICATION AND ASSESSMENT OF INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE AS A STUDENT OUTCOME OF INTERNATIONALIZATION

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THIS ARTICLE WAS PREVIOUSLY PUBLISHED IN THE *JOURNAL OF STUDIES IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION* (2006), NO. 10.

This study seeks to determine a definition and appropriate assessment methods of intercultural competence as agreed on by a panel of internationally known intercultural scholars. This information is validated by a sample of higher education administrators and can be used by administrators in identifying and assessing intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization efforts. Conclusions made from this study include identified elements of intercultural competence and assessment methods on which both the intercultural scholars and administrators agreed, resulting in the first study to document consensus on intercultural competence. Both groups agree that it is possible to assess degrees of intercultural competence and in so doing, that it is best to use a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods to assess intercultural competence, including interviews, observation, and judgment by self and others. Two models of intercultural competence are presented based on the findings of the study.

One meaningful outcome of internationalization efforts at postsecondary institutions is the development of interculturally competent students. Yet few universities address the development of interculturally competent students as an anticipated outcome of internationalization in which the concept of “intercultural competence” is specifically defined. This lack of specificity in defining intercultural competence is due presumably to the difficulty of identifying the specific components of this complex concept. Even fewer institutions have designated methods for documenting and measuring intercultural competence. As Terenzini and Upcraft (1996) observed, “while assessing the purported outcomes of our efforts with students is probably the most important assessment we do, it is seldom done, rarely done well, and when it is done, the results are seldom used effectively” (p. 217). Key questions arise: How do

institutions of higher education measure the effectiveness of their internationalization efforts? And specifically, how can these institutions know if they are graduating interculturally competent students? Even more important, what does it mean to be interculturally competent? Furthermore, what works and what doesn't in the way of assessment, particularly in regard to assessing students' intercultural competence?

This article details a research study that examined some of these questions through the collection and analysis of data on the definitions and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization in higher education. As one scholar wrote, "competence can be measured. But its measurement depends first on its definition" (Klemp, 1979, p. 41). Scholars throughout the past 30 years have defined intercultural competence in its various iterations, but there has not been agreement on how intercultural competence should be defined (Baxter Magolda, 2000; Beebe, Beebe, & Redmond, 1999; Bennett, 1993; Bradford, Allen, & Beisser, 2000; Byram, 1997; Cavusgil, 1993; Chen, 1987; Chen & Starosta, 1996, 1999; Collier, 1989; Dinges, 1983; Dinniman & Lolzner, 1988; English, 1998; Fantini, 2000; Fennes & Hapgood, 1997; Finkelstein, Pickert, Mahoney, & Douglas, 1998; Gudykunst, 1994; Gundling, 2003; Hammer, Gudykunst, & Wiseman, 1978; Hampden-Tumer & Trompenaars, 2000; Hanvey, 1976; Hess, 1994; Hett, 1992; Hoopes, 1979; Hunter, 2004; Kealey, 2003; Kim, 1992; Koester & Olebe, 1989; Kohls, 1996; Kuada, 2004; La Brack, 1993; Lambert, 1994; Lustig & Koester, 2003; Miyahara, 1992; Paige, 1993; Pedersen, 1994; Pusch, 1994; Rosen, Digh, Singer, & Phillips, 2000; Ruben, 1976; Samovar & Porter, 2001; Satterlee, 1999; Spitzberg, 1989; Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984; Stewart & Bennett, 1991; Stoni, 1997; Tucker, 2001; Wiseman, 2001; Yum, 1994; Zhong, 1998).

One study observed that there is "a need for a clearer definition of the concept of intercultural competence" (Kuada, 2004, p. 10). The director of Educational Testing Service's Center for Assessment of Educational Progress concurred, noting that "once a definition (of global competence) has been agreed upon, experts will have to decide what the components of the definition are" so that they can then be measured (Lapointe, 1994, p. 275). This study is the first to document consensus among top intercultural scholars and academic administrators on what constitutes intercultural competence and the best ways to measure this complex construct, thus representing the first crucial step toward measurement.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Assessment of student outcomes of internationalization can be placed within the theoretical program logic model (Rogers, 2000) in which outcomes become one step beyond outputs, defined as the citing of numbers as indicators of successful internationalization efforts. In addressing specific outcomes of internationalization efforts, long-term impact can be more fully determined. Figure 1 contains the model as it relates to this study, with the shaded area being the focus of this research. Although this model may not necessarily recognize the distinction between the organizational interests and needs of administrators and the cognitive interests of scholars, it does frame one way of viewing how learning measures may be brought more into alignment with organizational measures.

METHOD

This study used a combination of two research methodologies in analyzing the concept and measurement of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization efforts at institutions of higher education. The two methods were a questionnaire completed by U.S. institutional administrators of internationalization strategies and a Delphi technique used to develop consensus by a panel of nationally and internationally known intercultural scholars on a definition and components of intercultural competence, as well as recommended ways for assessing intercultural competence. As Linstone and Turoff (1975) describe it, the Delphi method is a process for structuring anonymous communication within a larger group of individuals in an effort to achieve consensus among group members. As in the case of this study, the Delphi technique can be used when there is a need for identified experts who are not geographically close to arrive at consensus on a particular issue; the structured nature of the process allows all members to contribute equally without dominance by a few.

A total of 73 U.S. postsecondary institutions initially received invitations through NAFSA: Association of International Educators and the American Council on Education (ACE) to participate in the first phase of this study. These institutions were identified as those that were strongly committed to internationalization, either through their participation in ACE's Internationalization Collaborative or through their national recognition by NAFSA as being an internationalized institution. Twenty-four of the 73 institutions (33%) chose to participate, representing a wide variety of institutions from across the United States, from community colleges to large research universities. The 11-item questionnaire, completed by midlevel and senior-level administrators, included both closed and open-ended questions about how that institution addressed intercultural competence as a student outcome. Data from the informational questionnaires were summarized and analyzed using descriptive statistics for overall



Figure 1. General Program Logic Model Applied to Internationalization
Source: Deardorff (2004).

trends and patterns so as to give a “snapshot” of what is currently being done in defining and assessing intercultural competence as an outcome of internationalization efforts at institutions of higher education in the United States.

The questionnaire also asked administrators to identify nationally and internationally known intercultural scholars from the intercultural field for participation in the Delphi study. This was one method used to generate names of top intercultural scholars who were later invited to participate in the second phase of the study. Names of top intercultural scholars were also generated through recommendations of other scholars, through an extensive literature review, and from those scholars included in the International Academy of Intercultural Research. From the names generated through these lists, 37 scholars received multiple nominations and were invited to participate in the Delphi study. Selection of participants for a Delphi study is crucial to the overall validity of the study (Dalkey, Rourke, Lewis, & Snyder, 1972), which is why a variety of means were used to generate the list of scholars invited to participate as members of the Delphi panel.

Twenty-three intercultural scholars (62%) accepted the invitation and participated in a three-round Delphi study. The 23 scholars included those with doctorates in a variety of disciplines, including communication, political science, education, international relations, anthropology, political science, psychology, and business. All have written books and/or articles on intercultural topics. Several are active cross-cultural trainers, and 2 have been involved directly in international education administration. One is currently a university president, as well as an expert on intercultural competence. Twenty-one are from the United States, 1 is in Canada, and 1 is in the United Kingdom. All are known nationally or internationally in the intercultural field.

In fact, a study published in the *International Journal of Intercultural Relations* (Hart, 1999) provided a list of the 20 most cited authors in the intercultural field, of which one third were involved in this study, including 2 of the top 3 most influential authors in the intercultural field as defined by that study.

These scholars represent a Western and mostly U.S.-centric view of intercultural competence, a view in which such competence resides largely within the individual. Some scholars, particularly from Asia, have engaged in limited work on the definition of communication (not necessarily intercultural) competence that is derived from other cultural contexts. Oftentimes, the unit of analysis in Asian cultures is not the individual but rather the group or one’s interpersonal relationships (Miyahara, 1992; Yum, 1994). For example, Samovar, Porter, and Stefani (1998) note an article by G. Chen (1993) in which the author stresses that harmony is the chief goal of human behavior and thus communication competence would ultimately result in harmony in relationships with others. Thus, given that most definitions of intercultural competence reflect a distinctively Western perspective, it was anticipated that the data from this research would be reflective of the scholars’ cultural context. The Delphi participants remained anonymous to each other throughout the process so as to reduce respondent bias; however, permission was sought from each participant to reveal his or her identity at the end of the study. Names of those who gave their permission to acknowledge their participation can be found in Table 1. The first round of the Delphi study involved two open-ended questions on the definition of *intercultural competence* and best ways to assess it. The second round reflected the data collected in Round 1, and data were rated by the

scholars on a 4-point Likert-type scale (4 = *highly relevant/important* and 1 = *not relevant/important to intercultural competence*). The third round involved accepting or rejecting the data collected and analyzed in Round 2. Institutional respondents from the first phase of the study also participated in the last round of the Delphi study to indicate whether they agreed with the conclusions reached by the intercultural scholars.

Data from Round 3 of the Delphi study were entered into an Excel spreadsheet and analyzed using two different methods—frequency distribution and Pearson’s chi-square test—in an effort to determine the prescribed range for group consensus. To determine the frequency distribution, frequencies were first tabulated for each item from each group. A summary of the frequencies per item per group was tabulated in respective bar charts. Through analysis of the bar charts, it was determined that the 80% agreement mark was the appropriate prescribed range for reaching consensus for both groups.

Pearson’s chi-squared test was used to analyze the results of this final round as yet another way to determine the items on which consensus was obtained through a prescribed range established by the probability value calculated through Pearson’s chi-squared test. One purpose of Pearson’s chi-squared test is to compare expected frequencies to actual obtained frequencies (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993). Pearson’s chi-squared test was performed for each item to which panelists responded and again for each item to which the practitioners responded. Responses were placed in a contingency table for each item, and a

Table I Intercultural Scholars Participating in This Study

Grateful acknowledgement is made to the following intercultural scholars who graciously shared their time and expertise as expert members of the Delphi panel:

Janet Bennett, Intercultural Communication Institute, Oregon
Michael Byram, University of Durham, England
Guo-ming Chen, University of Rhode Island
Mary Jane Collier, University of Denver
Mitchell Hammer, American University
Daniel J. Kealey, Centre for Intercultural Learning, Canadian Foreign Service Institute, Canada
Jolene Koester, California State University, Northridge
L. Robert Kohls, Institute for Intercultural Leadership, California
Bruce La Brack, University of the Pacific
Josef Mestenhauser, University of Minnesota
Robert Moran, Thunderbird, American Graduate School of International Management
R. Michael Paige, University of Minnesota
Paul Pedersen, Syracuse University
Margaret Pusch, Intercultural Communication Institute, Oregon
Brian Spitzberg, San Diego State University
Craig Storti, Craig Storti & Associates, Maryland
Harry Triandis, University of Illinois
Gary Weaver, American University
Richard Wiseman, California State University, Fullerton
... and four other intercultural scholars who served on the panel but did not wish to be acknowledged

probability value was calculated for each against the null hypotheses of equal probability of response.

Those items with a probability value of .05 or less were retained from Round 3. Those with a probability value of higher than .05 were discarded as items that did not have consensus. The results of both the frequency distribution and Pearson's chi-squared test were used to compare responses of expert participants and practitioner participants, as well as to assess overall areas of consensus by both. A final listing of accepted items was established based on the results of this last round of the Delphi study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Based on the data collected and analyzed in this study, the following key findings emerged:

FINDING 1

There were a variety of opinions and definitions among administrators as to what constitutes intercultural competence. Most preferred a more general definition of the construct as opposed to specific, delineated components as to exactly what constitutes intercultural knowledge, for example. The reason most often cited for a more general definition of intercultural competence is that administrators need an institutional definition that works with all students in all situations, regardless of their majors.

Nine definitions of intercultural competence, culled from intercultural literature, were provided to administrators who participated in this study. The definition deemed most applicable to institutions' internationalization strategies was one derived from Byram's (1997) work on intercultural competence. It received an average rating of 3.5 out of 4.0 and was summarized as follows: "knowledge of others; knowledge of self; skills to interpret and relate; skills to discover and/or to interact; valuing others' values, beliefs, and behaviors; and relativizing one's self. Linguistic competence plays a key role" (Byram, 1997, p. 34). The second highest rated definition received an average rating of 3.3 and can be summarized as follows: "Five components: World knowledge, foreign language proficiency, cultural empathy, approval of foreign people and cultures, ability to practice one's profession in an international setting" (Lambert, 1994, as cited in Deardorff, 2004, p. 230). In addition, several schools had developed institutional definitions of intercultural competence that were general in nature and contained several common elements. The top three common elements were the awareness, valuing, and understanding of cultural differences; experiencing other cultures; and self-awareness of one's own culture. These common elements stress the underlying importance of cultural awareness, both of one's own as well as others' cultures.

It is interesting to note the variety of terminology used by administrators to refer to the concept of intercultural competence, with more than six different terms cited by administrators, including cross-cultural competence, global competence, intercultural competence, and global citizenship. Though these terms are similar, there remain subtle differences in their definitions. It is apparent that consensus has not yet been reached among administrators as to what terminology is best to use.

FINDING 2

There was an even greater breadth of intercultural competence definitions among intercultural scholars than among the administrators, with a wide variety of definitions put forward. Based on the data

generated from intercultural scholars through the Delphi study, the top-rated definition was one in which intercultural competence was defined as “the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one’s intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes” (Deardorff, 2004, p. 194). There were numerous other statements developed by the scholars regarding intercultural competence, which received 85% or higher agreement, including the ability to shift one’s frame of reference appropriately, the ability to achieve one’s goals to some degree, and behaving appropriately and effectively in intercultural situations. The definitions seemed to focus primarily on communication and behavior in intercultural situations.

Of the specific components of intercultural competence noted, many of them addressed an individual’s personal attributes, such as curiosity, general openness, and respect for other cultures. Other delineated components involved cultural awareness, various adaptive traits, and cultural knowledge (both culture-specific knowledge as well as deep cultural knowledge).

One surprising result of this study was the specific skills that emerged through consensus, which included skills to analyze, interpret, and relate, as well as skills to listen and observe. Cognitive skills emerged, including comparative thinking skills and cognitive flexibility. These skills point to the importance of process in acquiring intercultural competence and the attention that needs to be paid to developing these critical skills. This finding confirms the writing of Yershova, Dejeagbere, and Mestenhauser (2000), in which they argue that the intercultural perspective along with intellectual competencies is integral to developing intercultural competence.

In regard to specific components of intercultural competence, the intercultural scholars in particular seemed to feel strongly that one component alone is not enough to ensure competence (i.e., knowledge by itself). Table 2 contains all items receiving 80% or higher acceptance by the top intercultural scholars in this study. These results are very important findings of this study, as there has previously been no consensus among intercultural scholars as to what constitutes intercultural competence. It is important to note that only one element received 100% agreement from the intercultural scholars, which was “the understanding of others’ world views.” This substantiates other literature that upholds respect for other worldviews as essential to intercultural competence, where worldview is described as basic perceptions and understandings of the world (Fong & Furuto, 2001; Ibrahim, 1985; Sue & Sue, 1990).

Table 2 Intercultural Competence Elements With 80% to 100% Agreement Among Top Intercultural Scholars

Intercultural Competence				
ACC	REJ	M	SD	Item
19	1	3.8	0.5	Ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes
19	1	3.6	0.8	Ability to shift frame of reference appropriately and adapt behavior to cultural context; adaptability, expandability, and flexibility of one's frame of reference/filter
19	1	3.4	0.7	Ability to identify behaviors guided by culture and engage in new behaviors in other cultures even when behaviors are unfamiliar given a person's own socialization
18	2	3.4	1.0	Behaving appropriately and effectively in intercultural situations based on one's knowledge, skills, and motivation
17	3	3.4	0.8	Ability to achieve one's goals to some degree through constructive interaction in an intercultural context
16	4	3.6	0.6	Good interpersonal skills exercised interculturally; the sending and receiving of messages that are accurate and appropriate
16	4	3.1	1.0	Transformational process toward enlightened global citizenship that involves intercultural adroitness (behavioral aspect focusing on communication skills), intercultural awareness (cognitive aspect of understanding cultural differences), and intercultural sensitivity (focus on positive emotion toward cultural difference)

Specific Components of Intercultural Competence

ACC	REJ	M	SD	Item
20	0	3.4	0.7	Understanding others' worldviews
19	1	3.8	0.6	Cultural self-awareness and capacity for self-assessment
19	1	3.7	0.6	Adaptability and adjustment to new cultural environment
19	1	3.5	0.6	Skills to listen and observe
19	1	3.4	0.8	General openness toward intercultural learning and to people from other cultures
19	1	3.4	0.8	Ability to adapt to varying intercultural communication and learning styles

(continued) —
M

Table 2 (continued)

ACC	REJ	M	SD	Item
18	2	3.8	0.4	Flexibility
18	2	3.8	0.4	Skills to analyze, interpret, and relate
18	2	3.7	0.6	Tolerating and engaging ambiguity
18	2	3.6	0.6	Deep knowledge and understanding of culture (one's own and others')
18	2	3.5	0.8	Respect for other cultures
17	3	3.5	0.9	Cross-cultural empathy
17	3	3.4	1.0	Understanding the value of cultural diversity
17	3	3.3	0.9	Understanding of role and impact of culture and the impact of situational, social, and historical contexts involved
17	3	3.2	1.0	Cognitive flexibility—ability to switch frames from etic to emic and back again
17	2	3.0	0.8	Sociolinguistic competence (awareness of relation between language and meaning in societal context)
17	3	3.0	1.1	Mindfulness
16	4	3.6	0.8	Withholding judgment
16	4	3.4	0.8	Curiosity and discovery
16	4	3.2	0.9	Learning through interaction
16	4	3.1	1.2	Ethnorelative view
16	4	2.9	0.9	Culture-specific knowledge and understanding host culture's traditions

Note: ACC = accept; REJ = reject.

FINDING 3

All institutions in this study agreed that it is important to assess students' intercultural competence. Thirty-eight percent already assess students' intercultural competence, and there was surprising consistency among methods used. Top assessment methods currently being used include student interviews (used by eight out of nine institutions), followed by student papers and presentations, student portfolios, observation of students by others/host culture, professor evaluations (in courses), and pretests and posttests. An important finding from this study is that these institutions used a variety of methods to assess students' intercultural competence, with an average of five different assessment methods used per institution. Figure 2 contains the results of this finding.

The results of the administrators' participation in the last round of the Delphi study indicated that administrators achieved 100% agreement on four specific assessment methods: observation by others/host culture, case studies, judgment by self and others, and student interviews. Administrators were nearly unanimous (95%) in using a mix of qualitative and quantitative measures to assess students'

intercultural competence. The following assessment methods also received 95% acceptance among administrators: analysis of narrative diaries, self-report instruments, other-report instruments,

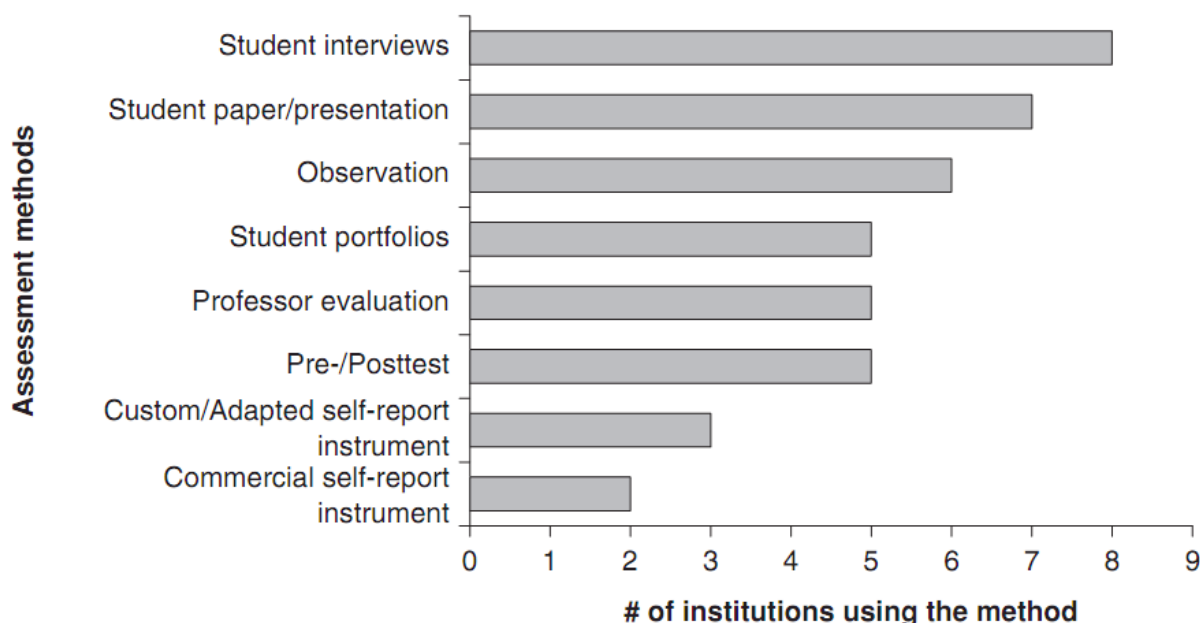


Figure 2. Intercultural Competence Assessment Methods Used by Institutions

triangulation (multiple methods), and a bottom-up approach involving such techniques as focus groups, dialogues, and workshops.

FINDING 4

According to the intercultural scholars, the best way to assess intercultural competence is through a mix of qualitative and quantitative measures (rated 3.7 out of 4,0).

Specifically, case studies and interviews received the strongest agreement (90%), followed by analysis of narrative diaries, self-report instruments, observation by others/host culture, and judgment by self and others (all at 85% agreement). Table 3 contains further details.

FINDING 5

Generally, intercultural scholars and higher education administrators agreed on the definitions, components, and assessment methods for intercultural competence that emerged through this study. However, administrators accepted a larger percentage of the items pertaining to the definition and assessment of intercultural competence areas, with the scholars rejecting 19 items that were accepted by the administrators, based on a 70% acceptance rate by both groups. Those items on which there was disagreement between administrators and scholars included the following components of intercultural competence: accomplished language and cultural learner, gaining trust and confidence of others, comparative thinking skills, operating within the rules of the host culture, and cross-cultural scholarship. Assessment methods rejected by scholars but accepted by administrators included quantitative measurements, pre- and posttests, other-report measures, and critical incidents and essays. In fact, it is

important to note that only 65% of the scholars felt that pre- and posttesting should be used as a way to assess intercultural competence, whereas administrators (90%) overwhelmingly agreed on the use of pre- and posttests. The reasons for this controversial view on pre- and posttesting are numerous and warrant further investigation. The premise is that administrators find the use of pre- and posttesting generally easy to administer and are hopeful to find that the intervention (i.e., study abroad) has indeed made a difference, thus providing a more meaningful and measurable outcome.

Delphi participants, however, expressed skepticism over the use of self-report instruments (which are often used in pre- and posttesting), particularly as the sole method, to measure the outcomes of an intervention. Furthermore, the results may not accurately reflect the impact of a particular intervention but may be the result of a combination of factors. Further research is needed in exploring the use and

Table 3 Assessment Items With 80% to 100% Agreement Among Top Intercultural Scholars

Ways to Assess Intercultural Competence				
ACC	REJ	M	SD	Item
18	2	3.2	0.9	Case studies
18	2	2.9	1.0	Interviews
17	3	3.7	0.8	Mix of quantitative and qualitative measures
17	3	3.4	0.7	Qualitative measures
17	3	3.2	0.9	Analysis of narrative diaries
17	3	3.2	0.9	Self-report instruments
17	3	3.2	0.9	Observation by others/host culture
17	3	3.1	1.0	Judgment by self and others
16	4	3.1	1.1	Developing specific indicators for each component and dimension of intercultural competence and evidence of each indicator
16	4	3.0	1.2	Triangulation (use of multiple data collection efforts as corroborative evidence for validity of qualitative research findings)
Issues Raised by Scholars in Assessing Intercultural Competence				
ACC	REJ	M	SD	Item
19	1	3.6	0.5	Intercultural competence assessment involves more than just observable performance
19	1	3.4	0.6	It is important to consider the cultural and social implications of assessing intercultural competence
17	3	3.6	0.6	It is important to determine who measures intercultural competence, who is the locus of evaluation, in what context, for what purpose, to what benefit, the time frame involved, the level of cooperation, and the level of abstraction
16	4	3.2	0.9	It is important to measure the degrees of intercultural competence
16	4	3.1	0.7	When assessing intercultural competence, it is important to analyze the impact of situational, social, and historical contexts involved

Note: ACC = accept; REJ = reject.

effectiveness of pre- and posttesting approaches.

Both administrators and scholars rejected seven items, including statements about placing the concept within a theoretical frame, measuring intercultural competence holistically as well as within a specific situation or context, and avoiding the use of standardized competency instruments. Both groups agreed that assessment of intercultural competence involves more than observable performance, that it is important to measure the degrees of competence, and that it is important to consider the cultural and social implications when assessing intercultural competence.

Although 65% of both the administrators and intercultural scholars accepted the statement *measuring intercultural competence is specific to context, situation, and relation* (65% was defined as not constituting consensus), there was general agreement on the importance of analyzing the situational, social, and historical contexts when assessing intercultural competence.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions can be made.

CONCLUSION 1

Intercultural scholars and higher education administrators did not define intercultural competence in relation to specific components (i.e., what specifically constitutes intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes). Instead, both groups preferred definitions that were broader in nature. Although this may be a surprising conclusion, this is actually in keeping with the literature in that most definitions are more general. However, it is important to note that a key criticism of existing definitions is that they are either too general or provide a disjointed list of attributes. This criticism may be responsible, in part, for the lack of specificity on the part of the intercultural scholars. Furthermore, the research methodology (Delphi technique) used in gaining scholars' consensus often leads to more general results rather than more specific ones, as in this case, which is one limitation of the methodology used in this study.

One of the key motivations for initiating this research was the assumption that specific components of intercultural competence needed to be delineated for institutions to assess students' intercultural competence. The findings actually run contrary to this initial assumption. Because both administrators and intercultural scholars preferred more general conceptions of intercultural competence, it appears that further research is needed on the development of this definition. In reviewing the specific components developed by the scholars in this study, it can be concluded that even these components are more general in nature (eg., culture-specific knowledge, flexibility). Thus, further research is needed to delve more deeply into the terminology used in the actual definition of intercultural competence.

Based on the literature review and the findings of this study, what can be concluded about intercultural competence? It is important to note that 80% or more of the intercultural scholars and administrators in this study were able to reach consensus on 22 essential elements of intercultural competence (Table 2). Those key elements primarily involved communication and behavior in intercultural contexts.

There are many ways that the information in Table 2 could be organized. Using the items on which 80% or more of both the intercultural scholars and administrators agreed, an attempt was made by the

researcher to organize these items into two visual ways of defining intercultural competence that could be used by administrators and others in their work in developing and assessing intercultural competence.

The visual representation (Figure 3) of intercultural competence eliminates long fragmented lists by placing components of intercultural competence within a visual framework that can be entered from various levels. However, having components of the lower levels enhances upper levels. Process orientation (mindfulness) throughout is key – this means being aware of the learning that takes place at each level and the necessary process skills that are needed for acquisition of intercultural competence.

Though individuals can enter these frameworks at any particular point, attitude is a fundamental starting point (Byram, 1997), as illustrated in both of these visual representations. It has been referred to as the affective filter in other models (Krasheri, 1982, as cited in Hadley, 2001). Lynch and Hanson (1998) highlight the fundamental role of attitude in intercultural competence when they wrote, “After all the books have been read and the skills learned and practiced, the cross-cultural effectiveness of each of us will vary. And it will vary more by what we bring to the learning than by what we have learned” (p. 510). Okayama, Furuto, and Edmondson (2001) reinforce the foundational importance of attitude by stating that what may be most important is . . . to maintain culturally competent attitudes as we continue to attain new knowledge and skills while building new relationships. Awareness, the valuing of all cultures, and a willingness to make changes are underlying attitudes that support everything that can be taught or learned. (p. 97)

The following two models concur with these scholars in emphasizing the importance of attitude to the learning that follows. Specifically, the attitudes of openness, respect (valuing all cultures), and curiosity and discovery (tolerating ambiguity) are viewed as fundamental to intercultural competence.

This pyramid model of intercultural competence (Figure 3) allows for degrees of competence (the more components acquired and developed increases probability of greater degree of intercultural competence as an external outcome), and although it provides some delineation of the definition, it is not limited to those components included in the model. This model enables the development of specific assessment indicators within a context or situation while also providing a basis for general assessment of intercultural competence, thus embracing both general and specific definitions of intercultural competence. This model of intercultural competence moves from the individual level of attitudes and personal attributes to the interactive cultural level in regard to the outcomes. The specific skills delineated in this model are skills for acquiring and processing knowledge about other cultures as well as one’s own culture. The model also emphasizes the importance of attitude and the comprehension of knowledge (Bloom, 1965).

A unique element of this pyramid model of intercultural competence is its emphasis on the internal as well as external outcomes of intercultural competence. The internal outcome, which involves an internal shift in frame of reference, although not requisite, enhances the external (observable) outcome of intercultural competence. The external outcome can be described as essentially “behaving and communicating appropriately and effectively in intercultural situations” (Deardorff, 2004, p. 196). Definitions of effective and appropriate are taken from Spitzberg’s (1989) work,

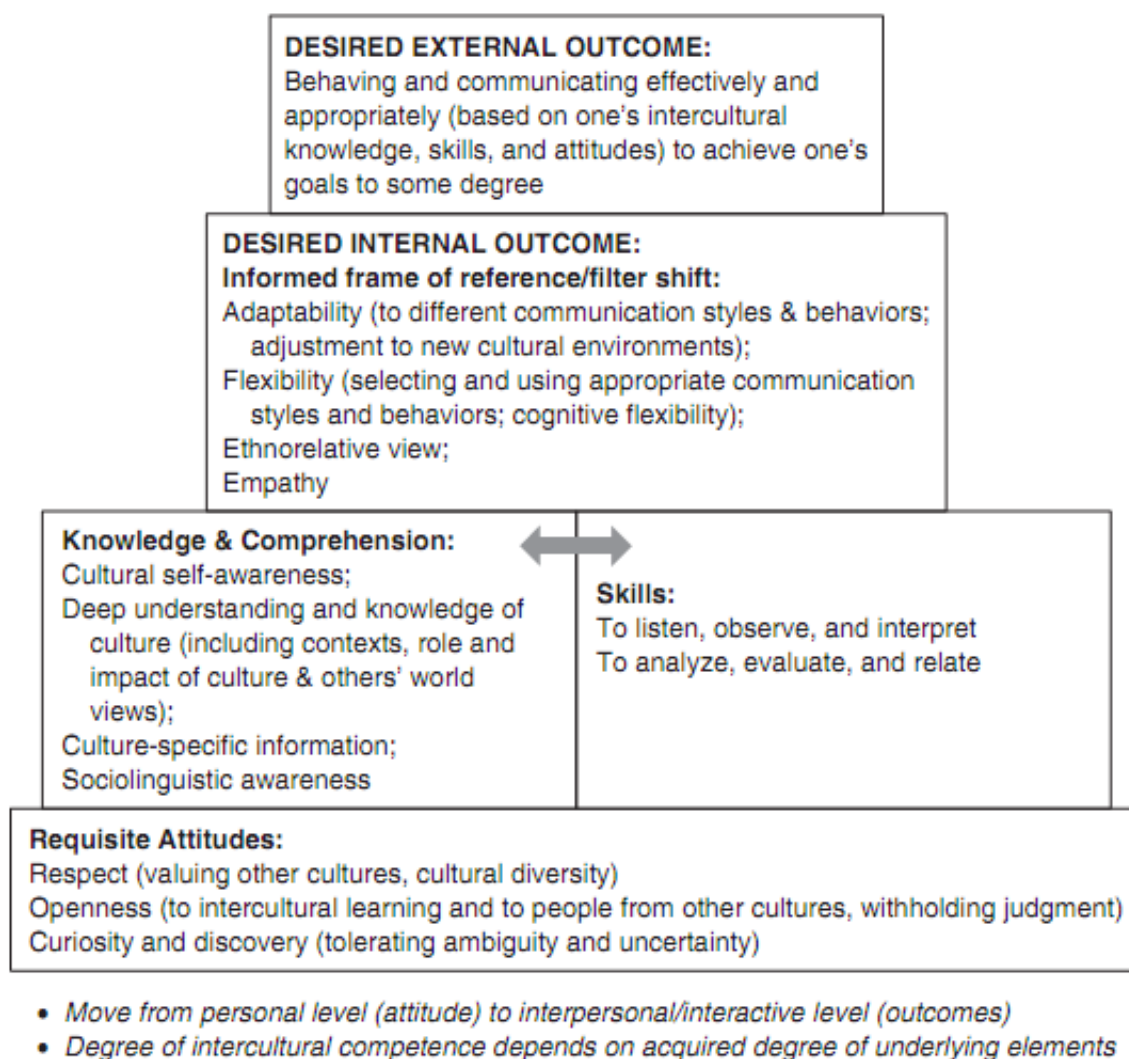


Figure 3. Pyramid Model of Intercultural Competence
Source: Deardorff (2004).

where appropriateness is the avoidance of violating valued rules and effectiveness is the achievement of valued objectives.

It is interesting to compare this pyramid model of intercultural competence to the four developmental stages developed by the American Council on International Intercultural Education (1996). The four developmental stages of the global competence development process were listed as follows: (a) recognition of global systems and their interconnectedness (including openness to other cultures, values, and attitudes), (b) intercultural skills and experiences, (c) general knowledge of history and world events, and (d) detailed areas studies specialization (ie. language). The administrators who developed these stages recognized that the first stage was most important to all global learners. The first stage stressed the importance of openness, which is the same starting point as the two visual models presented in this article. Intercultural skills and general knowledge are also noted in the developmental stages, which are accounted for in the two visual models.

Another way of organizing and displaying the final data is the process model in Figure 4 developed by Deardorff (2004). This process model of intercultural competence, while containing the same elements

as the first pyramid model of intercultural competence, depicts the complexity of acquiring intercultural competence in outlining more of the movement and process orientation that occurs between the various elements. This model denotes movement from the personal level to the interpersonal level (intercultural interaction). As in the pyramid model, it is possible to go from attitudes and/or attitudes and skills/knowledge directly to the external outcome, but the degree of appropriateness and effectiveness of the outcome may not be nearly as high as when the entire cycle is completed and begins again. The unique element of internal as well as external outcomes is also maintained with this process model, and in fact, it would be possible for an individual to achieve the external outcome of behaving and communicating appropriately and effectively in intercultural situations without having fully achieved the internal outcome of a shift in the frame of reference. However, the degree of appropriateness and effectiveness would be more limited than if the internal outcome had also been achieved.

This process model also demonstrates the ongoing process of intercultural competence

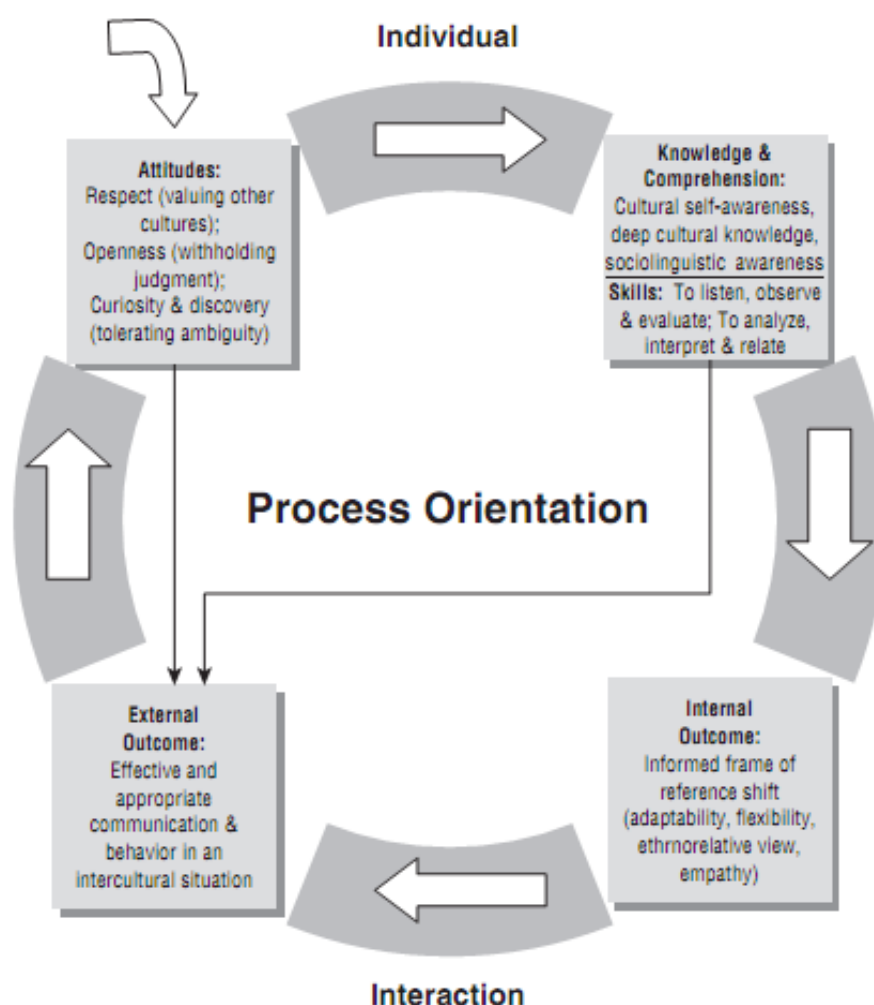


Figure 4. Process Model of Intercultural Competence

Source: Deardorff (2004).

Note: Begin with attitudes; move from individual level (attitudes) to interaction level (outcomes). Degree of intercultural competence depends on degree of attitudes, knowledge/comprehension, and skills achieved.

development, which means it is a continual process of improvement, and as such, one may never achieve

ultimate intercultural competence. As with the pyramid model, the attitudinal element in this process model is the most critical, and as such, attitudes are indicated as the starting point in this cycle.

There are, of course, adaptations that can and will be made to these models, and it will remain to future research to determine the usefulness of these models. And as with any model, there are limitations to both. Nonetheless, these models are attempts to organize the components of intercultural competence agreed on by both intercultural scholars and administrators.

CONCLUSION 2

Based on the overall consensus of both the scholars and administrators, it can be concluded that intercultural competence can indeed be measured. Furthermore, it is important to measure degrees (levels) of intercultural competence (as discussed in Pottinger, 1979). It can be concluded that it is important to measure intercultural competence for a period of time as opposed to one point in time. However, measuring intercultural competence is complex, and several conclusions can be made on assessing intercultural competence based on the results of this study.

Given the findings of this study, it is best to use multiple assessment methods and not just one method, such as an inventory. In fact, it is important to note that an inventory alone is not a sufficient measurement of intercultural competence according to the results of this study. Recommended assessment methods are primarily qualitative in nature, including the use of interviews, observation, and case studies, as well as the possible use of standardized competency instruments. Quantitative methods of measurement are somewhat controversial with administrators and intercultural scholars, and there is much stronger agreement between both groups on the use of qualitative measures. Both groups agree that intercultural competence can be measured in its separate components and not holistically, as some of the literature had indicated.

In measuring intercultural competence, it is important first to determine who is engaged in the actual measurement (including identifying their cultural biases), who is the locus of evaluation, in what context, for what purpose, to what benefit, the time frame involved (e.g., ongoing assessment), the level of cooperation, and the level of abstraction. Furthermore, it is important to determine how the assessment will be used and how measurement methods will account for multiple competencies and multiple cultural identities within individuals. It is vital for the assessment method to match the definition devised for intercultural competence (i.e., more specific methods for more specific definitions and more general methods for more general definitions). This leads to the importance of developing indicators (perhaps in specific contexts) and delineated objectives and criteria for measurement if definitions and assessment methods are more specific. An assessment guide for intercultural competence has been developed based on the results of this study and can be obtained from the researcher.

CONCLUSION 3

The definition of intercultural competence continues to evolve, which is perhaps one reason why this construct has been so difficult to define. The panelists' opinions and definitions have changed throughout the years, so what was written 10 to 15 years ago by these scholars may not be considered valid anymore by the author, and in fact, several panelists expressed this explicitly to the researcher. Definitions and

assessment methods need to be reassessed on an ongoing basis. Just as culture is ever changing, scholars' opinions on intercultural competence change with time. It is important for research and practice to stay current with scholars' research and thought processes on this construct.

CONCLUSION 4

Intercultural competence continues to be a complex topic fraught with controversial issues. This study highlighted several issues that remain controversial, including the following on which intercultural scholars and administrators were not able to achieve consensus, sometimes even within their own group:

- the use of quantitative methods to assess competence
- the use of standardized competency instruments
- the value of a theoretical frame in which to place intercultural competence
- the use of pre- and posttests and knowledge tests to assess intercultural competence
- the role and importance of language in intercultural competence
- whether measuring intercultural competence is specific to context, situation, and relation
- whether this construct can and should be measured holistically and/or in separate components

Among the controversial items, the role and importance of language in intercultural competence as well as the use of pre- and posttests in assessing intercultural competence have a direct impact on the international education field. Further research is needed to resolve these and other controversial issues related to intercultural competence.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

For practice. Implications of this study for practitioners in international education include the following:

1. Defining and measuring students' intercultural competence will help not only to measure the effectiveness of internationalization strategies, but at a minimum, it gives meaning to outputs (numbers) that are commonly cited as evidence of successful internationalization efforts. Ultimately, the exploration of intercultural competence raises the question of how the knowledge, skills, and attitudes attributed to intercultural competence vary from those attributed to those acquired through a liberal arts education.
2. Intercultural competence needs to be identified as a student outcome of internationalization and assessed throughout time—not just at one or two points in time. The development of intercultural competence needs to be recognized as an ongoing process and not a direct result of solely one experience, such as study abroad.
3. To assess intercultural competence, the concept first needs to be defined by the institution, keeping in mind that there are multiple definitions of intercultural competence from a variety of academic disciplines as well as the intercultural field, and it is important for administrators to at least be aware of these definitions instead of re-creating a definition without any influence or grounding from the intercultural field. Furthermore, administrators

need to revisit institutional definitions of intercultural competence to keep definitions current and relevant.

4. In defining and assessing intercultural competence, it may be helpful for administrators to develop specific indicators of intercultural competence in specific situations. At a minimum, assessment methods need to correspond with the definition (i.e., more specific methods for more specific definitions and more general methods for more general definitions).
5. Intercultural competence is a complex construct that involves more than one component. For example, knowledge or language does not guarantee intercultural competence. Thus, internationalization strategies need to address the development of the components of intercultural competence in a variety of ways (i.e., course work, study abroad, on-campus interaction with students from different cultural backgrounds, etc.) as well as the actual process for acquiring intercultural competence, including necessary cognitive skills.
6. It is important for administrators to use multiple assessment methods in measuring intercultural competence—both in and out of the classroom—that recognize the degrees of intercultural competence. Thus, for example, institutions that offer “global competence certificates” need to have multiple assessment methods in place that measure students’ global competence development throughout time (which leads to a further question as to whether an institution can certify students’ global and intercultural competence, given the complexities of the construct).
7. Given that there is no real agreement among administrators on the terminology to use in referring to intercultural competence, it will be important for administrators to explore the implications of using different terminology to refer to intercultural competence and how the different terms are interpreted. (For example, what are the implications of using “cross-cultural competence” vs. “intercultural competence”?)
8. To assist in assessing intercultural competence, an assessment inventory guide was developed by the researcher as a result of this study and can be obtained from the researcher. The assessment guide was also published in the *International Educator* (Deardorff, 2005).

For further research. Questions and research areas raised by this study that are recommended for further study include the following:

1. How do specific internationalization strategies affect the development and preparation of global citizens who are interculturally competent? How is intercultural competence developed in students through internationalization efforts?
2. How are the assessment methods noted in this study specifically implemented to assess intercultural competence? Further study is needed on the specifics and effectiveness of these assessment methods.

3. How does the developmental stage of an individual affect the assessment of that individual's intercultural competence? More research is needed on the intersection of an individual's development stages and the acquisition and development of intercultural competence.
4. What are the implications of assessment results? How do administrators use assessment results to benefit the students, the institution, and internationalization strategies?
5. How do college students perceive and define intercultural competence? How do they perceive the development, value, and benefit of intercultural competence?
6. In this study, the expert panelists comprised primarily Western scholars from the intercultural field. What are the perspectives of other scholars, including those from non-Western perspectives and from different fields, including service fields (i.e. health care, public safety)?
7. Two models of intercultural competence were developed in this study as a result of the data collected. More research is needed to refine these models as well as to determine their usefulness to higher education administrators in identifying and assessing intercultural competence as a student outcome.
8. How does the development of intercultural competence affect global workforce development?
9. How do other current and future studies on the definition and delineation of intercultural competence correspond with the findings of this study?
10. Looking more broadly at the overall topic of assessing meaningful outcomes of internationalization efforts, is there consensus on the criteria of an internationalized institution? What are the most effective ways of assessing meaningful outcomes of internationalization strategies at postsecondary institutions?

SUMMARY

This article summarizes the first study to document consensus among top intercultural scholars on the definition and assessment methods of intercultural competence. It is hoped that this study's findings, along with the two models of intercultural competence developed from the results of the study, will benefit academic administrators in developing and assessing student outcomes of internationalization at their institutions.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Dr. Darla K. Deardorff is Executive Director of the Association of International Education Administrators, a national professional organization headquartered at Duke University, where she is also an adjunct Research Scholar in Education and an Educator for Duke Corporate Education, specializing in global leadership. She has worked in the international education field for almost twenty years and previously held positions at North Carolina State University and the University of North Carolina–Chapel Hill (UNC-CH) where she has had experience in study abroad, international student services, cultural programming, and ESL teaching/teacher training. Founder of ICC Global, a global research network on intercultural competence, she is also an ESL instructor & teacher trainer with over twelve years of experience and has lived, taught and worked in Germany, Japan, & Switzerland.

Dr. Deardorff teaches cross-cultural courses at Duke University and is adjunct faculty at NC State University and UNC-CH, where she teaches graduate courses in intercultural communication. She is also on faculty of the Summer Institute of Intercultural Communication in Portland, OR and Visiting Faculty at Leeds-Metropolitan University in the United Kingdom. She has conducted cross-cultural training for universities, companies, and nonprofit organizations in addition to giving invited talks around the world, including at the UN-related World Forum on Intercultural Dialogue in Baku, Azerbaijan, as well as recent keynotes in Colombia, Argentina, Ireland, & Austria. Dr. Deardorff also serves as a consultant on assessment & intercultural competence development universities, businesses, and non-profit organizations.

She has published numerous articles and book chapters on intercultural topics, and is editor of The SAGE Handbook of Intercultural Competence (Sage, 2009) which features contributions from leading intercultural experts from around the world. Three more books will be published in the next year.

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TAKING A HOLISTIC APPROACH TO INTERNATIONALISATION

CONNECTING INSTITUTIONAL POLICY WITH THE EVERYDAY REALITY OF STUDENT LIFE

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ABSTRACT

Internationalisation of the curriculum is important for all staff and all students – all of whom live and work in a highly connected global community. This paper argues that there is a need to change the way we think about and approach internationalisation to take account of the importance of the role of cultural interaction in the lives of students and staff as global citizens within the global community – and in so doing to ensure that institutional policy, the curriculum and student life are connected. For this to occur internationalisation of the curriculum needs to occur within an institutional policy framework which provides clear goals and directions and supports those with a broad, accessible and strategic range of services for staff and students. This paper argues that one way to do this is to focus on the development of the relationships that are at the heart of internationalisation of the curriculum – complex relationships between knowledge, people and culture, curriculum and student life. Furthermore, the paper argues that ultimately it is the extent and depth of the level of engagement with other cultural perspectives which determines the extent and depth of internationalisation and that such engagement requires that certain “enabling factors” are in place. These include a clear policy on internationalisation of the curriculum, a focus on internationalisation in development and support for academic staff, strategically focussed student services and extra-curricular activities that encourage and reward cross-cultural interaction for all students.

It updates earlier work on internationalisation of the curriculum undertaken by the author and takes that work to the next level, summarising key learning from almost fifteen years of work in connecting institutional policy on internationalisation with the lived experience of students.

A Taoist thinker and author in the Fourth Century BC, Chuang Tzu, Master Chuang) told the following story:

"The frog in the well marvelled at the expanse of water before it. But the frog could not comprehend the ocean outside the well."

There are many versions of this story. Another version goes:

"Small people are like frogs in a deep well, revelling in the lowly enjoyments of their mudpool, but incapable of understanding life in the wide ocean." (Panlatrevo, 2005).

There is much to be learned from these few words. Chuang-Tzu is said to have "smiled at the narrow-minded concepts and customs of society" and to have espoused the value of freedom from the boundaries and restrictions imposed on us, not by nature, but by narrow-minded human societies ... in the fourth century BC. Chuang-zsu's story encapsulates for me what internationalisation in higher education is all about and highlights the importance of all of those things that I associate with internationalisation – students and staff opening their minds to new ideas, imagining new ways of doing things and moving beyond the boundaries and restrictions of existing relationships and frames of reference. In many ways we are all "frogs", so immersed in our own immediate world that we have little time to devote to understanding the larger world of which we are just a small part and thus in danger of remaining "trapped" in our own limited and restricted world. Internationalisation offers staff and students the opportunity to learn to swim in the ocean beyond. In a global community this means developing in every student the skills, knowledge and attitudes required to work with people who are "not like me"; people from a broad range of linguistic and cultural backgrounds "at home" as well as, perhaps, abroad.

BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

In 1997 Van der Wende argued that a major focus of internationalisation was "making higher education (more) responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalisation of societies, economy and labour markets" (19). In 1998 Josef Mestenhauser argued that internationalisation of the curriculum should be seen as an educational reform, a challenge to both the nature of the curriculum and the paradigms on which it is based (21). He argued that up to that point in time internationalisation of the curriculum had been focussed too much on projects and programs designed to train a few students as future international affairs specialists, completely ignoring the fact that all graduates will work in a global setting, as engineers, accountants, doctors etc. This paper is based on the experiences and research of the author into internationalisation of the curriculum undertaken principally, but not only, in Australia in a university that has seen internationalisation as part of a broader reform agenda.

Australian universities have thrived on cultural diversity for many years, currently having one of the highest proportions of international students on campus of any country in the world. However, the domestic or local student population is also culturally diverse. For example, while fifteen percent of the first year Law students at Melbourne University in 2004 were international students, a total of one in three students came from a home where a language other than English was spoken most of the time (Larcombe and Malkin, 2008). This is largely due to increases in the intake of skilled, business and refugee migrants into Australia, with Asian, African and Middle Eastern-born migrants making up the largest percentage. These migrants and their children are now enrolling in large numbers in Australian tertiary institutions. They come from a broad range of linguistic and cultural backgrounds. This situation is not unique to Australia. Increasing cultural diversity has been a defining feature of many tertiary classrooms and campuses around the world in recent years. Campus diversity offers rich opportunities for internationalisation of the curriculum - for students and staff from very different cultural backgrounds to listen to each other, learn from each other and engage with each other every day. Research conducted in Australia and the UK over the last 15 years suggests, however, that this will not happen unless there are strategic and systematic interventions of various types (see Leask and Carroll, 2011, for a summary of this research).

This paper argues that a holistic approach to internationalisation that connects policy with student learning inside and outside the classroom as part of a reform agenda is essential for universities today. Such an approach will include several connected parts - a clearly articulated policy on internationalisation of the curriculum, training and development for academic staff and strategically focussed student services and extra-curricular activities that encourage and reward cross-cultural interaction. And it will be based on some key principles.

INTERNATIONALISATION OF THE CURRICULUM

Internationalisation of the curriculum, “the incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning processes and support services of a program of study” (Leask, 2009) is sometimes associated with building cross cultural communication and understanding and preparation for life as a professional and a citizen in a globalised world. This is of relevance to all students, but what it actually means in practice is not always clear to academic staff (Leask & Beelen, 2010; Clifford, 2009).

There is no doubt that internationalisation of the curriculum means different things to different people (or “frogs”). Like the super ordinate concept of “internationalisation” defined by Knight and De Wit in 1995 as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural and/or global dimension into the teaching, research and service of an institution” it is complex, challenging and variously interpreted. Both concepts have undergone various changes in emphasis and meaning nationally and internationally in recent years. Some of those working in universities seem to confuse the means with the end; to see internationalisation as focussed on one or two seemingly disconnected activities (such as student exchange or international student recruitment) rather than a comprehensive suite of activities and approaches, connected by policy, that have a collective and profound impact on student learning. It is my contention that if we view internationalisation through the lens of the curriculum and see the participants

and stakeholders in the curriculum (staff, students, employers, government and communities) and the relationships between them as at the heart of the broader concept of internationalisation, we can enable movement from the “well” into the “ocean” for students and staff.

The potential for internationalisation of the curriculum as an aid to assisting “frogs” in the well to jump into the ocean and swim to new shores in global, national and local environments that are rapidly changing, was eloquently expressed by a student I interviewed in 2004...

“Study creates a little platform but it’s not until you jump and take advantage of opportunities (that) you begin to understand more about other cultures” (Leila)

So what opportunities should we offer and what incentive and support do we need to provide to the key participants in the curriculum in order to assist them to “jump”?

GRADUATE ATTRIBUTES AND INTERNATIONALISATION OF THE CURRICULUM

Many Australian universities have statements of graduate qualities which include a focus on the development on international and global perspectives in all graduates. These can create a driver and a focus for internationalisation of the curriculum (Leask, 2001) although Barrie (2006) found that there was variation both within and across disciplinary groups as to the interpretation of graduate attributes. This is not surprising and is indeed appropriate. The international and intercultural skills, knowledge and attitudes required of different professionals are both similar and different (Leask, 2001). For example, the international perspectives required of a nurse or a pharmacist focus more on socio-cultural understanding than those of an engineer, where the focus is more on the understanding of the global and environmental responsibilities of the professional engineer and the need for sustainable development. And while practicing nurses, pharmacists and engineers should all be able to recognise intercultural issues relevant to their professional practice and have a broad understanding of social, cultural and global issues affecting their profession, the strategies they will need to use to deal with them will be different in some ways even though they may be similar in others. Comparable differences and similarities exist between the international perspectives required of for example, accountants and teachers. The nature, importance and application of the graduate quality will be subtly different in different professions.

However, an internationalised curriculum, regardless of discipline, will need to engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity (Leask, 2009) and involve them in emotional as well as intellectual participation in real tasks (De Vita, 2007). It will need to purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens, within the context of their program of study (Leask, 2009).

The University of South Australia (UniSA) was one of the first Australian universities to adopt graduate attributes and systematically implement their development in all undergraduate and postgraduate programs. Seven Graduate Qualities were adopted in 1996, the seventh being that “all graduates will display international perspectives as graduates and citizens.” Nine indicators were provided to academic staff as a guide to the general sorts of characteristics that graduates who have achieved the quality might exhibit. As part of the program planning process, program and course writers

were required to articulate new or elaborated indicators related specifically to their discipline area. The intention was for the development of this and other graduate qualities in students to become part of the regular teaching, learning and assessment tasks occurring within the program. The generic indicators for Graduate Quality 7 at UniSA are detailed in Table 1.

INDICATOR	A GRADUATE WHO DEMONSTRATES INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE AS A PROFESSIONAL AND A CITIZEN WILL:
7.1	display an ability to think globally and consider issues from a variety of perspectives
7.2	demonstrate an awareness of their own culture and its perspectives and other cultures and their perspectives
7.3	appreciate the relation between their field of study locally and professional traditions elsewhere
7.4	recognise intercultural issues relevant to their professional practice
7.5	appreciate the importance of multicultural diversity to professional practice and citizenship
7.6	appreciate the complex and interacting factors that contribute to notions of culture and cultural relationships
7.7	value diversity of language and culture
7.8	appreciate and demonstrate the capacity to apply international standards and practices within the discipline or professional area
7.9	demonstrate awareness of the implications of local decisions and actions for international communities and of international decisions and actions for local communities

TABLE 1: GRADUATE QUALITY #7 AT UNISA: GENERIC INDICATORS

The focus in these generic indicators is a dual one – there is emphasis on both the acquisition of skills and knowledge related to professional areas as well as the development of values and cross-cultural awareness. Intercultural learning (the development of an understanding and valuing of their own and other cultures) is the focus of four indicators (7.2, 7.4, 7.6 and 7.7); the development of knowledge and understanding is the focus of two indicators (7.3 and 7.5) and the application of what has been learned to professional practice is the focus of three indicators (7.1, 7.8 and 7.9). The indicators are a public institutional statement of the focus of internationalisation at the curriculum level – they constitute policy in relation to the internationalisation of teaching, learning and assessment arrangements of courses and programs at the University of South Australia. They connect internationalisation of the curriculum with globalisation, provide a stimulus for broadening the scope of what is taught to include international content and non-dominant perspectives and encourage the use of approaches to teaching and learning which assist in the development of intercultural competence. They highlight the importance of the role of cultural interaction in the lives of students and staff as global citizens within the global community.

Such statements of graduate attributes can provide academic staff in every discipline with goals and directions for internationalisation of the curriculum. The policy promise that graduates will be prepared for professional practice in a multi-cultural and global community is a powerful driver focusing internationalisation of the curriculum on outcomes for all students and making it clear that not all internationalised curricula will look the same. Such statements still require interpretation at the discipline and, more importantly, program or degree level though. This in turn requires that academic staff themselves have international and intercultural perspectives; that they understand the cultural foundations of knowledge in the disciplines and practice in the professions; and that they appreciate the value of and that they can work with diversity in *their* professional lives as academics and teachers.

How does this connect with students? They come from a variety of different cultural, social and educational backgrounds and have had access to a broad range of life experiences. Some have travelled widely, some not at all, some have lived and worked in other countries, some have not; some speak other languages, some do not. Cultural diversity in the classroom can be a terrific resource for developing teachers' as well as students' international/intercultural perspectives. But we have known for some time that merely placing students in mixed culture groups to work on unstructured tasks unrelated to the exploration and sharing of cultural and national perspectives is unlikely to result in the development of international or intercultural perspectives (Chalmers and Volet, 1997; Robertson, Lane, Jones and Thomas, 2000; Smart, Volet & Ang, 2000). We have also known for some time that what is needed is learning tasks that require critical reflection on and discussion of how personal attitudes and values are shaped by and reflect cultural values; and how cultural values are reflected in discipline-based knowledge and professional practices (Volet and Ang, 1998). Students need to be encouraged to communicate, explore, explain, inquire and negotiate meaning across cultures and be supported in the process. They will need many opportunities to interact with each other and share knowledge, ideas and theories from multiple contexts; to explore each other's and their own culture, conceptual systems and values; and to reflect critically on the relationship between culture, knowledge and action within the discipline. Students can benefit greatly from working together in culturally mixed small groups but the benefits derived are to a large extent dependant on the nature of the tasks that they are set, the support they receive prior to and during the task and the rewards they receive for making the effort (Briguglio, 2006).

An internationalised curriculum will need to utilise a wide variety of teaching and learning strategies which have been carefully selected and constructed. It will focus on both "what is taught and learned" (that is, on both content and outcomes) and "how it is taught and learned" (that is, on what both teachers and learners do).

For internationalisation of the curriculum to be enacted effectively academic staff will need to understand all of the above and be able to apply it to teaching in their discipline area – to have international perspectives themselves; to have given careful consideration to the contributions made by culturally different others to the knowledge of the discipline; to understand the culture-specific assumptions and biases that are built into that knowledge as well as into the way that they and others apply discipline knowledge in practice. Many will require support.

SUPPORTING ACADEMIC STAFF TO INTERNATIONALISE THE CURRICULUM

Since the introduction of Graduate Qualities at UniSA in 1996 a range of staff development workshops and online resources have been provided to assist both staff and students to interpret this Graduate Quality. However, as is frequently the case, it was difficult to determine uptake, so in 2003, as Coordinator of International Staff and Student Services across the University with a specific responsibility for internationalisation of the curriculum, I embarked on a research project to explore what a small sample of staff and students understood this approach to internationalisation of the curriculum to mean within their discipline and how it was enacted in the classroom. A series of focus group and individual interviews were conducted with 16 students and 8 staff in Hong Kong and Adelaide and discourse analysis of the data was used to identify some of the themes and issues emerging in the eight years since the introduction of the Graduate Quality. The aim of this research was not to tell the whole story but rather to gain some indication of the ways in which Graduate Quality 7 was understood by a small sample of staff and students within one discipline area, Business, in two completely different cultural settings, Hong Kong and Australia. The “snapshots” of experience in different places and at different times provided some understanding of the effectiveness of this policy initiative and the strategies that were put in place to support its implementation.

The research showed that 6 years after the introduction of Graduate Qualities students and staff shared an understanding of international perspectives as the skills and knowledge required to live and work effectively in diverse national and cultural contexts and that teachers who could identify and assist their students to develop these were valued by students. It also showed that those staff who were efficient intercultural learners themselves were best equipped to develop international and intercultural perspectives in their students. However, neither students nor staff were confident that the development of international perspectives could be measured through assessment tasks. Students and staff were clear that internationalisation of the curriculum was about much more than the sort of token “cultural tourism” that is common – a few international examples, preferably as unique, exotic and entertaining as possible, sprinkled haphazardly through the curriculum. The teacher developing Graduate Quality 7 in students was seen as playing an important role in changing students’ “mindset”, the ways in which they thought about things. The latter was seen as an important outcome of the curriculum, related to personal growth, respect for difference, the ability to operate in an increasingly globalised and multi-culturally diverse world, the personal application of complex perspectives within professional contexts and the ability to actively and effectively engage with cultural others. The “cultural tourism” approach, which does not recognise the cultural foundations on which the curriculum itself is built and does not recognise the contributions made by culturally different others to the knowledge of the discipline, was seen as superficial. The culture-specific assumptions and biases that are built into disciplinary knowledge and to the way that the discipline knowledge is applied in practice were seen as, at the very least, essential elements in an internationalised curriculum. Some regarded them as foundational – that on which all else should be built in an internationalised curriculum.

This research also suggested that the preparation of graduates to live and work in a globalised society requires the development of students’ understanding of the ways in which cultural difference and diversity combined with the increasing connectedness of the world impacts specifically on their personal

lives and on professional practice. *Explicit* alignment between Graduate Quality 7, objectives, teaching and learning arrangements and assessment was also seen as an area requiring more attention.

A second, larger and loosely connected study funded by the Australian Government (specifically Australian Education International in the Department of Education Science and Training) and administered by the Australian Vice-Chancellors' Committee (AVCC) was conducted in 2005 (Leask, Hicks, Kohler and King, 2005). The aim of this study was to develop a professional development framework for transnational or offshore teaching. Questionnaires were sent to over 100 transnational students and staff and interviews were subsequently conducted with 61 University of South Australia and partner staff and students in Australia, Hong Kong and Singapore. One of the findings of this research was that flexibility in teaching style was extremely important when teaching an internationalised curriculum to a diverse student population. The study also found that where the teaching arrangements require skills in intercultural engagement there are many opportunities for teaching staff to develop their own international perspectives, but that sometimes administrative processes and management structures were inadvertently working against these opportunities being utilised. Opportunities for even minor curriculum changes to internationalise the curriculum were thus often not pursued. The challenge of the research project was to develop strategies, structures and resources to assist academic staff to learn from and with their students – to take a critical approach to methodology and question their own and others assumptions about the “best” ways to select and organise content, to teach and to learn - and to effectively and efficiently incorporate this learning into curriculum design, pedagogy and assessment.

Two other institutionally funded research projects indicated that teams of staff working together to internationalise the curriculum using Graduate Quality 7 as a guide had changed the way individuals planned their teaching and organised content and learning and assessment activities but that there were often practical difficulties involved in getting the teaching team together to do this.

Regular evaluations of activities and student feedback on annual university and course-based surveys over a period of more than ten years also provided insight into strategies for developing international perspectives in students. They indicated that there was a strong belief, shared by both policy makers and educators, that bringing people from different backgrounds and cultures together on campus would foster the development of cross-cultural understandings and friendships. However, despite the focus on the development of international perspectives as one of the Graduate Qualities from 1996, in 2001 feedback from international students suggested dissatisfaction amongst many with the level of social interaction they were having with Australian students (Leask, 2003). This, and subsequent activity and investigation have provided insights into why this might be so.

When interaction occurs across a linguistic and cultural divide it is an effortful process. Paige (1993) points out that “professional intercultural educators know that communicating and interacting with culturally different others is psychologically intense” and has several risk factors associated with it, including risk of embarrassment and risk of failure (p. 13). In such situations not only do the individuals involved in the interaction need to have the necessary linguistic skills, they must also have the motivation to expend the extra effort required to interact. What appeared to be happening at UniSA in 2001 was that either domestic students or international students or both, were not willing to make this extra effort. This was seen as a significant impediment to the institution achieving its internationalisation goals related to

the development of international perspectives in all students. This was a problem which needed to be tackled.

It soon became clear, however, that this was not an isolated problem. In 1998 Volet and Ang had identified lack of interaction between Australian students and international students from Asian backgrounds as “one of the most disturbing aspects of the internationalisation of higher education in Australia” (5). In 2000 a case study conducted at the University of Tasmania (Robertson, Lane, Jones and Thomas, 2000) found that international students identified feelings of isolation from Australian classmates as one of the most important problems they faced during their tertiary study experience in Australia. A study by Chalmers and Volet (1997) suggests that the isolation described by incoming students results from attitudes and actions of home students and academic staff. All of these, and other studies, were useful both in defining the issue and identifying strategies to stimulate engagement with cultural diversity. Strategies focussed on encouraging social participation, interaction and engagement with cultural diversity both outside and inside the classroom were developed and trialled. The aim was to develop a classroom and campus environment and culture which motivates and rewards interaction across cultures for all students – in effect to “normalise” internationalisation as “the way we do things around here” (Webb 2005). Some of the strategies that were developed included:

- A Learning Guide for Australian students entitled “What do I call you?-an introduction to Chinese, Malay and Hindu names” was produced and made available to students on the web-site and in hard copy. It was used as the basis for workshops offered to domestic students employed to work as buddies or mentors for newly arrived international students – and domestic students were actively sought for these roles. This was a change from the past when the “new international student mentors had been almost exclusively international students. The guide was also used extensively with general staff providing “front-counter” service, many of whom provide early and vital points of contact for international students in relation to the myriad of questions they need answered.
- An online peer mentoring system for new international students which matched international students prior to their arrival at the university with domestic students studying the same course. Students communicated via email and in online discussion groups and negotiated face-to-face contact at mutually convenient times following the international student’s arrival on campus. The response to this initiative was far more positive than anticipated - initially many more domestic students than international students volunteered to participate in the project. This was most likely related to the flexible time commitment the scheme offered to domestic students who are often “time-poor” due to work commitments.
- The development of a university award which recognises the learning associated with periods of intensive engagement with culturally different others, culminating ultimately in a notation on the student’s testamur.
- Face-to face peer social mentoring and academic tutoring schemes that required and supported student mentors and tutors to work in culturally diverse pairs with groups of culturally diverse students.

A focus on graduate attributes as a driver and focus for internationalisation of the curriculum has facilitated debate and activity around internationalisation on the formal curriculum (content, objectives, teaching activities and assessment) and the informal curriculum at UniSA. It has changed the way some staff think about what they teach and how they teach it and this has resulted in some students thinking differently about themselves and their learning. In this regard it has been an effective policy lever to drive change in the formal and informal curriculum. Ongoing reflection on nearly fifteen years of activity has also seen several principles that can be applied in situations where there is a desire to connect institutional policy with the curriculum and student life. These principles are described in the next section of this paper.

PRINCIPLE 1: POLICY ALONE IS NOT ENOUGH

Graduate attributes as “policy” are not enough on their own. They need to be supported by leadership and strategies that are informed by research and practice in other institutions as well as within the home institution. For example, the appointment of staff dedicated to leading the implementation of the policy at the university level as well as the local, faculty level and the allocation of resources to support staff development, student services and the monitoring of progress and achievement in relation to policy interpretation and implementation. Attention to the detail of the curriculum such as the wording of objectives, the organisation of learning and teaching arrangements and the structure of assessment tasks at programme and course level is critical. Finally, reflective and scholarly practice are essential in ensuring that policy is both understood and implemented.

PRINCIPLE 2: STAFF AND STAFF SUPPORT ARE BOTH CRUCIAL ELEMENTS IN THE PROCESS OF INTERNATIONALISATION OF THE CURRICULUM

While the power and importance of policy statements and related planning and goal-setting are substantial, it is also absolutely essential that academic staff “own” the internationalisation agenda, that it is interpreted and enacted at program and course level as well as at the institutional policy level - and only they can do this. Academic staff are the link between the curriculum policy and students. Caruana (2010) argues that “the crucial factor determining the possibilities for intercultural dialogue within the student learning experience is academics’ attitudes towards, and the ways in which they understand, internationalisation”. The role of academic staff in understanding internationalisation in general terms as well as in interpreting curriculum policy at the discipline level requires significant attention and support. They themselves may need to be “internationalised” on a more personal level (Sanderson, 2008). The role of professional (or “general” or “administrative”) staff is also critical in ensuring that a campus culture of internationalisation exists and intercultural engagement is modelled. Decisions made at the faculty and course level by both academic and professional staff can have a profound influence in the student experience and on student learning outcomes. For example, decisions such as whether to provide all students with training in how to work effectively in cross-cultural teams prior to starting an assignment or during orientation/induction or whether to limit that training to those who are the “outsiders”, will

influence the roles played by different students and the learning that they take away from the task. Staff development is therefore an important element of any institutional approach to internationalisation.

Academic staff may need assistance to interpret the meaning of internationalisation of the curriculum in their discipline and to develop the skills and knowledge to deliver an internationalised curriculum effectively. It may not be easy to get academic staff to pay attention to the internationalisation agenda beyond the immediacy of catering for the needs of an increasingly diverse student population. The demands on the time of academic staff are rapidly increasing, research often assumes greater importance in their lives than teaching and internationalisation may not be their top priority.

Resources and workshops on curriculum design, pedagogy and assessment as well as more individualised assistance will all be necessary. Strategies designed to challenge the long-held beliefs of academic staff, to assist them to consider the implications of alternative and emerging paradigms within the discipline on their curriculum and imagine new ways of teaching and learning are all important. Good teaching is at the heart of the internationalised curriculum (Farkas-Teekens, 1997; Biggs, 1999; Leask, 2011). Curriculum “alignment”, including making assessment criteria in relation to international knowledge, skills and attitudes explicit is an essential element of good teaching and curriculum design (Ramsden, 2003). Identifying and “mapping” what these are and where they will be developed across an entire program is also critical. This requires that academic staff work together, as a program team, to plan the internationalised curriculum, as well as individually, within their courses, to develop and assess particular skills and knowledge in their students.

However, academic staff development for internationalisation needs to focus on more than the mechanics of course design and pedagogy. As one staff member put it:

having an international perspective means questioning (our) own personal biases ... so (we) have a sense of (our) own biases and (our) own practices, and greater awareness of (our) own cultural affiliations and how that impacts on the way that (we) practice.
(“EMILY”, AUSTRALIA-BASED LECTURER, PERSONAL COMMUNICATION, JANUARY 21, 2004)

This is also true for administrative staff who are often the first point of contact for students and key purveyors of institutional culture. This is a complex task which has been shown to be most effective when there is significant investment of time and energy on the part of both academic developers and individual faculty members (Crichton and Scarino, 2007).

PRINCIPLE 3: STUDENT SERVICES WILL NEED TO FOCUS ON ALL STUDENT

While the particular needs of distinctive groups of students should not be ignored (e.g. inbound exchange students; international students; study abroad students; English as a second language students), where internationalisation is focussed on all students, services to support all students will need to be provided. Although internationalisation of the curriculum must be considered within a discipline context, there is still a need to invest in student services that support the involvement of all students in the internationalised curriculum. These services may take various forms such as conversation classes in English (or the local language) for international students or workshops on how to work effectively in

cross-cultural teams provided for all students as part of the curriculum by student services staff specialising in this area. The latter recognises that not all academic staff are experts in developing intercultural competence in their students, that this is an area of scholarly activity in its own right and that it is important for all students to learn these skills. Services that assist all students to develop the language, communication and cultural awareness skills required for intercultural engagement must be broadly conceived and adequately funded.

PRINCIPLE 4: CAMPUS CULTURE IS AN IMPORTANT PART OF AN INTERNATIONALISED CURRICULUM

When curriculum is defined in its broadest sense, as the total student learning experience, campus culture cannot be ignored. The presence on campus of visible signals that engagement on a variety of levels with different cultural perspectives is valued and supported is important (Leask 2003; Jones and Killick 2007). This ranges from visible signals that a number of different cultures with different values and beliefs use the facilities and are supported through prime resource allocation (such as the obvious presence of Muslim prayer rooms and Halal food on campus) to the funding of culturally-based student clubs and societies, the provision of space specifically set aside for international student activities and public displays of art works portraying a variety of cultural perspectives. These are all important aspects of a culturally heterogeneous campus environment. Individuals may, however, see such things as optional extras rather than essential services. It may be necessary to monitor and remind managers who make local decisions about seemingly small issues of the connection between the decision and the creation of a culture of internationalisation on campus.

PRINCIPLE 5: DIVERSITY ALONE IS NOT ENOUGH

Diversity on campus has the potential to be both a driver of and a resource for internationalisation of the curriculum – diversity provides some imperative for academic staff to incorporate the discipline perspectives of cultural others into their teaching whilst also being, to some extent, cultural ambassadors and a source of that perspective. However, this potential is unlikely to be realised unless there is focussed and strategic training and development for staff and a system of rewards for those students who develop international perspectives. Intercultural learning and engagement is rarely if ever going to be an automatic outcome of cultural diversity in the classroom but it is an essential component of an internationalised curriculum.

PRINCIPLE 6: “LOCAL” DECISIONS ARE SIGNIFICANT

The everyday reality of life for students at University is varied and includes experiences as broad as the food in the cafeteria, interactions with mentors and student coaches, group work in class, course content and assessment tasks and the opportunities provided for reflection in class on the way in which their own culture influences what they think and how they behave. All of these experiences are to some extent affected by seemingly unrelated decisions about the structure and focus of individual activities at the local, rather than institutional level. Decisions such as how to structure orientation or a mentoring program, what textbook to use, when to use group work and how it is organised and supported, will all have an impact on student life and student learning. If such local decisions are to be supportive of broader

institutional goals in relation to the development of international and global perspectives in all students, the policy and its relationship to the local action must be understood by all staff. This is a challenge, as such seemingly small decisions, made in the context of the School or the course, are often seen as not being connected directly with the implementation of institutional policy in relation to internationalisation. For the connection to be understood and the implications of alternative actions to be evaluated, requires awareness and understanding of policy and practice in relation to internationalisation of the curriculum, a hitherto somewhat esoteric concept in many universities.

PRINCIPLE 7: INTERNATIONALISATION OF THE CURRICULUM IS AN EVOLUTIONARY PROCESS

The changes resulting from internationalisation of the curriculum can be profound because internationalisation of the curriculum challenges existing disciplinary paradigms, individual biases and commonly held beliefs. Such change is likely to take time and should be undertaken in a scholarly way, with careful monitoring of the outcomes of interventions and changes to the curriculum on student learning. This is not something that can be approached as list of disconnected activities that can be “ticked off” and forgotten. It is best tackled as a developmental and cyclical process that will require leadership, collaborative action on the part of program teams and regular review of progress. The process needs to recognise the challenges associated with intercultural engagement and intercultural learning and respect the developmental nature of this work.

CONCLUSION

This paper has argued that viewing the broad concept of internationalisation in higher education through the lens of the curriculum can enable movement from the “well” into the “ocean” for students and staff. The participants and stakeholders in the curriculum (staff, students, employers, government and communities) and the relationships between them are at the heart of the broader concept of internationalisation. While it is important to have a clear policy position in relation to internationalisation and the development of international and global perspectives through the curriculum, policy alone is not enough. This is because internationalisation of the curriculum is fundamentally concerned with relationships; between culture, knowledge and the disciplines in a globalised world; between the curriculum and the everyday reality of student life; between students; and between students and staff. Policy that is not supported by leadership, services and resources that nurture student and staff engagement with cultural diversity on and off campus, encourage explorations of the implications of the ways in which disciplines are themselves culturally constructed and leave room for new ways of thinking and doing will not have a significant impact on student learning. Intercultural engagement is challenging and effortful for both staff and students and both groups and individuals will require support and assistance if universities are to prepare students to live in a rapidly changing globalised world.

The extent and depth of the level of engagement with other cultural perspectives at institutional, faculty and individual/personal levels will determine the breadth and depth of internationalisation in an institution. Thus it is crucial to manage the detail of the component parts of an internationalisation strategy in order to ensure that we all escape from the confines of our wells and the depths of our mudpools. Internationalisation of the curriculum is complex and challenging. The walls around our wells

are tall and strong – institutions and those who work and learn within them will have to make a real effort to get over them.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

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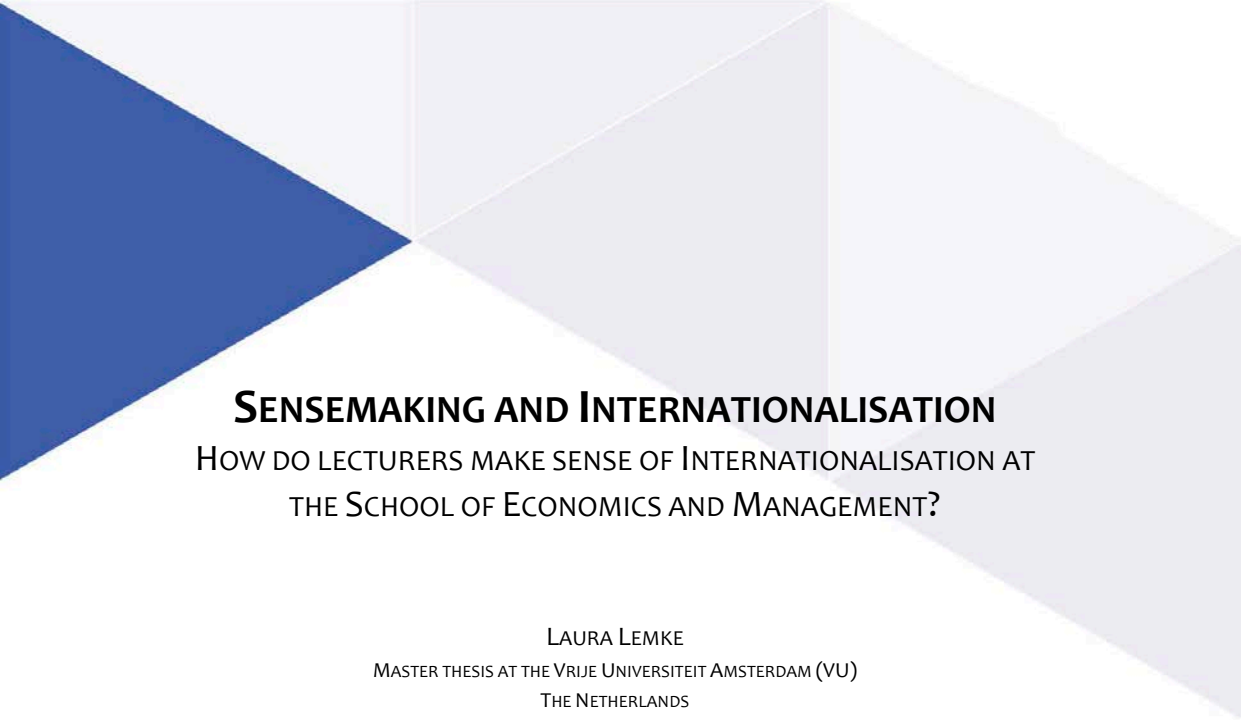
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SENSEMAKING AND INTERNATIONALISATION

HOW DO LECTURERS MAKE SENSE OF INTERNATIONALISATION AT THE SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND MANAGEMENT?

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ABSTRACT

This paper gives an outline of a research project conducted at the Hogeschool van Amsterdam (University of Applied Sciences) in 2011. This research was part of my master's degree programme on Culture, Organisation and Management (COM). COM is an international master's programme within the Faculty of Organisational Science at the Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam (VU). With the support of the Research Group on Internationalisation, part of the Centre for Applied Research on Economics and Management (CAREM), I carried out this research as the basis for writing my final thesis. This research was a qualitative ethnographic research among lecturers at the School of Economics and Management (DEM) regarding their perceptions, attitudes, behaviour and experiences concerning internationalisation at their institution and faculty. Therefore, the main question was: *"How do DEM lecturers make sense of the Internationalisation process of Higher Education?"*. This paper focuses on the background, motives and relevance of the research. In addition, the research design, methods and conclusions will be presented.

1. BACKGROUND AND MOTIVES

The process of globalisation, described by Knight (2008, p. 4) as the flow of people, cultures, ideas, values, knowledge, technology, and economy across borders resulting in a more interconnected and interdependent world, leads to and asks for internationally oriented individuals and organisations. Especially with the rise of information and communication technologies (ICT), the global knowledge

economy and the increased mobility of people, international oriented individuals are needed. It is important that these global citizens have international and intercultural skills and competences to integrate in the world economy and strengthen international relationships (Altbach & Knight 2007, p. 291). I state that higher educational institutions (HEIs) and their organisational members are crucial actors in preparing those individuals for the internationally oriented world. Throughout the world HEIs are becoming internationally oriented; they adapt to and implement the process of internationalisation. Knight (2008, p. 19) describes internationalisation of HEIs as: *"The process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of higher education at the institutional and national levels"*

For a long period, among European institutions, the belief was that mobility (in- and outbound) of students was the best way to internationalise HEIs. Therefore, the issue of internationalising the curriculum has been overshadowed (Nilsson in Crowther et al., 2000, p. 21). Nowadays, internationalising the curriculum by infusing international and intercultural elements influences the content and goals of HEIs to a great extent. As a result, internationalising curricula is an essential aspect of internationalising higher education. A well-known and accepted definition of an internationalised curriculum is: *'A curriculum which gives international and intercultural knowledge and abilities, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally, socially, and emotionally) in an international and multicultural context'* (Nilsson in Crowther et al., 2000, p. 22). The two most important objectives for internationalising institutions their curricula are increasing students their international and intercultural competences (Nilsson in Crowther et al., 2000, p. 23).

The Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences (HvA), is one of those HEIs implementing and adapting to the process of internationalisation. HvA is one of the largest institutions for higher professional education in The Netherlands, with several locations in Amsterdam. Its main focus is on offering bachelor's degree programmes in professional education. HvA its strategic plan for internationalisation includes its main goals and priorities for the period 2010 until 2014. Its main goal is to offer students an international learning environment in which they can acquire the knowledge and competences they need for the future when working in international and intercultural settings. In its strategic plan, the HvA concludes that it has been active for a while on internationalising its institution but that this not had the desired effects. In addition to this, the HvA notices that it is not well known yet across borders, so it wants to profile itself more as an international oriented University of Applied Sciences and wants to gain a stronger international profile (mainly in Europe).

The largest School of the HvA, the School of Economics and Management (DEM), wrote its own policy plan before the institutional policy plan. While in the past the School its focus was primarily on mobility, now DEM its central and main goal is now to internationalise its curricula and to have all its students develop international competences. DEM distinguishes itself from other Schools of the HvA, because it includes the Research Group on Internationalisation. This Research Group consists of academic staff members who are specifically focusing on the implementation and monitoring of the internationalisation process. Since DEM aims at an integral approach to internationalisation, its focus is on integrating internationalisation in both its curricula (vertical) and its organisation (horizontal).

Lecturers play a crucial role in achieving the objectives in internationalising the School its curricula. Their roles and professions are changing over time and they have to live up, among others, to expectations of the institution its management. First, they are the ones who have to implement the strategic plans in their teaching practice. Second, they are the ones who have to enable students to acquire international and intercultural competences. Therefore, it can be argued that lecturers are the core players in the internationalisation process. According to Teekens (in Crowther et al., 2000, p. 30) the role and position of lecturers at times of internationalising HEIs is largely unexplored in many institutions. In addition, I argue that the role of lecturers is also under exposed in scientific literature.

Next to the importance of the role of lecturers, I was mostly interested in the way they make sense of the whole internationalisation process. How do they define the term internationalisation? How do they experience the process in their daily professional lives? Do they experience changing roles, extra workload and a change of professional duties? Do they experience obstacles? Do they discuss the process with their colleagues? Do they feel supported by management during the process? I argue that the way lecturers make sense of the process highly affects their commitment, because they use sensemaking to give meaning to their experiences, either positive or negative. Therefore, sensemaking was the main concept of my research. It can be defined as the process of *“turning circumstances into a situation that is comprehended explicitly in words and that serves as a springboard into action”* (Weick et al., 2005, p. 409). Sensemaking is grounded in identity construction. The professional identity of a lecturer influences the sensemaking process, especially when it comes to sensemaking at the individual level. Therefore, the concept of professional identity was used in the research to explain sensemaking. Professional identity can be described as *“the process by which the person seeks to integrate his various statuses and roles, as well as his diverse experiences into a coherent image of the self”* (Sachs, 2001, p. 153). Nowadays, a common way to examine sensemaking processes, and therefore also identities, is by collecting and analysing narratives of organisational members: *“Taking language seriously enables researchers to begin to unravel the complexities of the processes of identity formation and construction: it can offer insight into how identities are constituted and, over time, reconstituted in everyday organisational talk and texts [...]”* (Ybema et al., 2009, p. 303). For that reason the main method for collecting data for this thesis was interviewing a number of DEM lecturers.

2. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND RELEVANCE

As mentioned before, with this interpretive case study I wanted to explore sensemaking processes of DEM lecturers while internationalising their School. Therefore the main question was:

HOW DO DEM LECTURERS MAKE SENSE OF THE INTERNATIONALISATION PROCESS OF HIGHER EDUCATION?

This research question was elaborated in the following sub-questions:

- What is Internationalisation of higher education and what are its components?
- What is described in the internationalisation policy plans of the HvA and DEM?
- In which ways is the process of internationalisation visible in the work of DEM lecturers?

- How do DEM lecturers associate with the process of internationalisation and its components?

The research had multiple aims and had relevance for several parties.

Firstly, the research added relevant information to scientific literature on internationalisation of higher education. Although various scientific journals and numerous books have been published on the topic of internationalisation of higher education, sensemaking processes of lecturers during the internationalisation process have been underexposed. Most existing research is quantitative and focuses on mobility. Therefore, my research had a new focus and design: a qualitative and ethnographic design with a focus on sensemaking processes of lecturers.

Secondly, with this research I wanted to give DEM (and HvA) an insight into the sensemaking processes of its lecturers, to increase the understanding of the impact of the process of internationalisation. In addition, the research provided a reflection on the whole process through the eyes of lecturers and this could help the School during further implementation of its international policy. Hopefully, the research will lead to more institutional awareness of the complexities of the process and the ways lecturers are influenced by it.

Thirdly, next to the scientific and specific relevance for DEM (and HvA) I believe that this type of research could have added value for other schools of the HvA or other institutions. Although the empirical data are not representative for and cannot be generalised to other fields of study or institutes, this does not apply to the design of the research.

Finally, this research could also be relevant for the Dutch government and other important organisations focusing on internationalisation of higher education such as Nuffic, the Dutch organisation for International Cooperation in Higher Education.

3. DESIGN AND METHODS

The nature of the research was a qualitative single case study, which is typically focusing on a single instance of a social phenomenon (Babbie, 2007, p. 309). Single case studies are one of the research paradigms of social science and entail an understanding of a particular group or subject under examination. The reason for focusing on one particular group within the organisation, the lecturers, is that it gave a more in-depth view rather than a broad general description. This research had two purposes: exploration and description (Babbie, 2007, p. 92).

During the research I made use of ethnographic methods. Ethnography is a specific type of qualitative research and can best be described as *“the methodology that acknowledges the complexity of human experiences and the need to research it by close and sustained observation of human behaviour”* (O'Reilly, 2005, p. 1). A few important characteristics of ethnographic research are that this type of research makes use of multiple methods; it involves direct and sustained contact with people within the context of their daily (organisational) lives; the researcher watches what happens, listens to what is said and asks questions; the researcher produces a richly written account and reflects on her own role and acknowledges the role of theory (O'Reilly, 2005, p. 3). Since my focus was on DEM lecturers, which are

organisational members of the HvA, I can specify even more by arguing that I did organisational ethnographic research.

A key characteristic of organisational ethnographic research is combined fieldwork methods. During my research, I used different tools, sources and senses to collect two types of data: generated data and naturally occurring data. Generated data gave me insights into people's own perspectives on and interpretation of their beliefs, behaviour and situations. Natural occurring data enabled me to understand the context of the research (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003, p. 36).

First, to answer theoretical questions I analysed and reviewed recently published literature on the broad topic of Internationalisation. In addition, I consulted several websites and I made use of general documents on internationalisation of higher education from the Dutch *Ministry of Education, Culture and Science* (OCW) and *Nuffic*. For information about the research site and the policy plans of HvA and DEM on internationalisation I analysed and reviewed organisational (policy) documents, minutes and reports of the Research Group on Internationalisation. Next to that I attended all meetings of the Research Group and consulted the intranet.

Second, empirical data about the lecturers were gathered through fieldwork which I started with regular and participant observation and ended by conducting semi structured in-depth interviews. An important reason why I decided to do participant observations before conducting interviews is that I expected to observe relevant situations which I could use as input for the interviews. While observing I made notes which I used as input for the interviews. After and during the observations in classes, I had short casual conversations with lecturers and students.

When reading policy documents about DEM it became clear that DEM consists of four sections: *Leeuwenburg* fulltime programmes, *Fraijlemaborg* fulltime programmes, part-time/dual programmes and the *International Business School*. I decided to approach lecturers in all four units. Next to that I selected lecturers based on characteristics such as gender, age, background, the courses they taught at that moment and the programme(s) in which they were teaching. In the end, I observed and interviewed 14 lecturers. I have collected their stories consisting of opinions, feelings and experiences around the topic internationalisation.

4. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

With this research I aimed to explore sensemaking processes of DEM lecturers, while internationalising their School. This final section of this article will provide us with the main findings concerning the research question: *How do DEM lecturers make sense of the Internationalisation process of Higher Education?* Empirical data and sub-results on sub-questions will not be presented, but can be found in the full text of my master thesis.

4.1 COLLECTIVE SENSEMAKING

Sensemaking can be done in two ways, on an individual level and on a collective level. This distinction was noticeable within the research. Collective sensemaking of the internationalisation process at the institutional level is influenced by different factors. First, even though two policy plans on internationalisation are available to provide DEM lecturers and other staff members with a roadmap, most

lecturers are not aware of the policy plans. Only a few lecturers state that they are familiar with them, but that they have not read them. They argue that policy plans are not well communicated and the message about the institutional plan to internationalise the institution and its Schools did not reach the work floor. Second, most lecturers argue that higher management does not support or guide them through the process and that they do not take their responsibility for initiating and monitoring the internationalisation process.

Whereas Coburn (2001) argues that sharing is deeply rooted within the context of lecturers, which therefore helps them to collectively make sense of processes, DEM lecturers experience the opposite. Therefore, it is hard for lecturers to collectively make sense of the internationalisation process on the institutional level. First, since lecturers think that no (clear) information is communicated from higher management to the work floor, it is almost impossible for them to construct a mutual collective understanding of the internationalisation process. Second, lecturers are not aware of a shared institutional working definition of internationalisation. They argue that there is a lack of a clear mission, vision and strategy. In addition, there is not enough room and time to interact and discuss about the topic internationalisation and collectively come to concrete ideas and plans. They argue that over the years the School has become too big; the overview disappeared. Therefore, there is a lack of interaction and sharing across the different programmes and locations. Besides, course sections are deleted and the lecturers' common rooms do not function as such anymore. Third, because of a lack of communication and mutual understanding, lecturers cannot "translate" the concept internationalisation into concrete actions. Lecturers are not able to answer the questions "What is the story here?" and "What should I do now?"

Even though it is hard for lecturers to collectively make sense of the internationalisation process at an institutional level, they do collectively make sense of it at a programme level. Within most of the programmes on both locations, lecturers, interacting with their colleagues and programme managers, mainly make sense of the process of internationalisation by internationalising the existing curricula and by providing students with international classrooms. Those two activities are also described, in scientific literature (Teekens, 2006; Beelen, 2007) and in the policy plans of DEM and HvA, as the two most important instruments for the internationalisation process in higher educational institutes.

Almost all programmes try to provide classrooms with an international orientation. Within the International Business School, lecturers internationalise classrooms in different ways. First, by delivering education in English. Second, by providing international content through the use of international literature, case-studies and examples. Third, by interacting with the diverse body of students and using cultural differences as learning material. Within Dutch medium programmes, lecturers give meaning to international classrooms in a different way. Even though the courses are mostly taught in Dutch and there are (almost) no foreign international students, lecturers make sense of the process of internationalisation by focusing on increasing students their international and intercultural competences. They provide international related literature, case-studies and examples. To them, course content is more important than the language of teaching. Moreover, teaching in the English language is considered an obstacle. Offering international minors to both domestic and international students is also a way for lecturers, both inside and outside the IBS, to concretely make sense of the internationalisation process at programme

level. However, even though different approaches of international classrooms are described, many classes cannot be considered international classrooms yet.

Based on previous conclusions, collective sensemaking at programme level can be explained according to Coburn's (2001) three phases. First, almost all lecturers, in interaction with their colleagues and their programme managers, try to construct a mutual understanding of the process and goals of internationalisation, based on the scant information they receive from higher management. Second, they directly and indirectly select the most relevant information for their courses, based on their experiences and based on the programmes its goals. Third, they come into concrete action. Since each team of lecturers constructs a different mutual understanding of the information and dismisses certain information, there is a great variety of concrete actions among programmes within DEM.

4.2 INDIVIDUAL SENSEMAKING

It can be stated that collective sensemaking on the programme level partly overlaps with individual sensemaking, because decisions made within the programme affect individual lecturers and their individual sensemaking. Whereas Coburn (2001) argues that lectures mainly collectively make sense of messages, situations and processes, Weick (2005) argues that sensemaking is an individual process influenced by social interaction and being within a specific environment. To show the individual sensemaking processes of lecturers, certain properties of Weick's (1995) sensemaking will be described. In addition, the influence of lecturers' professional identity will become clear.

First, how lecturers perceive themselves and their values highly influences the way they make sense of the internationalisation process. Overall, lecturers see themselves as transmitters of specific knowledge. This is what characterises their professional identity. However, due to the process of internationalisation and the implementation of it, the role of lecturers as just transmitters of knowledge has changed. Nowadays, lecturers see themselves also as facilitators and mediators of international and intercultural learning. Next, they see themselves as students, because they learn from interacting with their diverse environment. It can be concluded that, even though lecturers encounter certain obstacles, lecturers individually make sense of internationalisation through their changing roles. Therefore, their professional identity highly influences their engagement, motivation and willingness to support and act upon the process of internationalisation.

Second, lecturers make sense of the process by paying attention to experiences from their past. They reflect on their lived experiences and therefore their individual sensemaking is retrospective. Whereas some lecturers make sense of the concept internationalisation by reflecting on experiences and situations within their youth, others are able to make sense of internationalisation within the class by reflecting on earlier positively experienced situations. Some lecturers for instance had good experiences with multicultural student teams; therefore they decided to continue working with those kinds of teams.

Third, lecturers make sense of the process by enacting and interacting with their environment. Therefore, individual sensemaking of lecturers is a social process. Lecturers partly create their own environment in class; they also experience the freedom for creating it. Within for instance the IBS, lecturers interact with international students and use their diverse backgrounds as input for their classes.

In addition, lecturers individually make sense of internationalisation by adapting their teaching methodology and choosing subject content that suits their students.

To conclude, overall lecturers mainly make sense of internationalisation on an individual level by giving meaning to their personal norms, values, rules and ideas. They adapt their teaching methodology and teaching style to their environment and try to provide students with international and intercultural learning experiences by choosing relevant literature, case-studies and examples. Despite some encountered obstacles, for instance teaching in the English language, lecturers engage with the process of internationalisation. Therefore, their professional identities are constantly changing from being just transmitters of knowledge to facilitators and mediators of international and intercultural learning.

4.3 INTERNATIONAL VERSUS EXTERNAL INTERNATIONALISATION

It can be concluded that lecturers collectively and individually make sense of the internationalisation process on different levels. However, the sensemaking processes described above are limited to sensemaking of internal internationalisation and do not reach across borders. In order to make sense of external crossborder internationalisation, to gain (more) international and intercultural experiences outside the School, lecturers could decide to go abroad for a short or long period. Whereas some lecturers go abroad and make sense of the process of external internationalisation, some lecturers do not (regularly) go abroad.

Both institutional obstacles and personal obstacles keep lecturers from going abroad. Concerning institutional obstacles, most lecturers argue that they are not really aware of the possibilities of lecturers' mobility. They believe that these are not well communicated, not stimulated and also not facilitated. It costs them too much time to figure things out. Even when lecturers do know about the possibilities, they encounter obstacles. They have to arrange everything themselves and the opportunities are limited because of the teaching schedule. Among personal obstacles, having young children is the main obstacle. These lecturers feel they cannot go abroad for a longer period, and are most of the time not willing to go abroad for a shorter period (meaning 1 month), because they feel they cannot leave their families. In addition, older lecturers want to give the opportunities to their younger colleagues. So, both institutional and personal obstacles keep lecturers from going abroad and keep them from making sense of the external internationalisation process.

4.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

To conclude, there is a great variety on how DEM lecturers collectively and individually make sense of the process of internationalisation. This great variety exists because lecturers argue that there is no clear and coherent mission, vision and strategy concerning how to internationalise their School; they perceive a lack of communication, interaction, guidance and support. This results in ad hoc, reactive and fragmented responses to the process of internationalization and there is no coherent approach.

It is advisable to the higher management to get more actively involved in the process, to create more dialogue. They should give lecturers the opportunity, time and space to interact, discuss and share with each other. The higher management should provide lecturers with concrete plans, ideas and advises to create a broader supporting area at the work floor. This could lead to a more sharing and open culture,

so that lecturers learn from each other and not constantly re-invent the same wheel. In addition, it is advisable to offer (more) workshops and courses for lectures concerning how to deal with internationalising their courses. During those workshops there should be time and space to interact with each other and together come to new insights and new ideas. Concerning the encountered obstacles such as the English language, compulsory English classes should be offered. Therefore, it is also important that lecturers get the resources to follow these classes.

One concrete advice to the higher management is to hire independent consultants to coach lecturers through the whole process. Because of the changing roles lecturers have, coaching and guidance is necessary to not lose their personal and organizational goals along the way. These consultants should have the broad overview of concrete actions, should connect different lecturers to each other to collectively develop their ideas and should take care of that the process of internationalisation becomes more coherent and more controlled.

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INTERNATIONALISATION STRATEGIES AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMPETENT TEACHING STAFF

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ABSTRACT

This article argues that the role of the lecturer in an internationalised higher education institution is not limited to teaching internationally or interculturally diverse groups of students. Teaching staff members will normally be required to undertake a variety of tasks, which require different competences. In addition, they will need specific competences to be able to function well in an international working environment. In order to foster the discussion on the topic of staff competences in relation to internationalisation, this article suggests the use of an 'International Competences Matrix.' This HRM tool is meant to alert both teaching staff and their heads of department to the fact that working in an international environment requires new and additional competences and that training teaching staff in 'weak' competence areas may be necessary to make a university's internationalisation policy a success.

The role of the lecturer in an internationalised higher education institution and the competences required to fulfil this role successfully are topics which have not received the attention that they deserve and which managers in higher education have been loath to address, not only in relation to the recruitment of new staff, but particularly in relation to current staff. The emphasis in most studies on this topic has been on teaching in the international classroom and on the intercultural competences which a lecturer needs to effectively engage with students from different educational and cultural backgrounds. However, the introduction of the concept of 'Internationalisation at Home' (IaH), particularly in European higher education, has led to a redefinition of internationalisation and subsequently to the realisation that this would have consequences for the competences required of teaching staff. They are not only expected to contribute to the internationalisation of their higher education institution by teaching to internationally

diverse groups of students. Working in an internationalised higher education institution requires them to undertake a much wider variety of activities, such as internationalising curricula aimed at a domestic student population, counselling and supervising (domestic and international) students in preparation for and during study abroad periods, and maintaining collaborative relations with partner institutions abroad. This calls for a more differentiated approach to teaching staff competences in relation to internationalisation.

Important work on the teaching of students from different educational and cultural backgrounds has been done in Australia, where most universities actively engage in both recruiting international students for Australian campuses and offering transnational or 'offshore' programmes, particularly in Southeast Asia (Leask, 2001, 2004, 2005; Stone, 2006). Similar approaches can be found in the USA, Canada and the UK (Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998; Bond, Qian & Huang, 2003; Schuerholz-Lehr, 2007; Hyland, Trahar, Anderson, & Dickens, 2008). One of the most comprehensive contributions to the topic, however, is Hanneke Teekens's profile of 'the ideal lecturer' for the international classroom (Teekens, 2001, 2003). Teekens defines nine clusters of qualifications and she lists the knowledge, skills, and attitudes which are relevant for lecturers who work in an internationalised teaching environment. She pays specific attention to an aspect which is largely absent from studies that originated in English-speaking countries, but which has had a significant impact on the thinking about staff competences in relation to internationalisation: the use of English as the language of instruction, instead of, or alongside the national language. Her profile "provides lecturers with an insight into the demanding role of standing before a culturally mixed group and teaching in a language other than their own" (Teekens, 2001, p. 23). Teekens's intention is "to create awareness among the managers of higher education institutions of the specific qualities and skills required of teaching staff destined to be lecturers in the international classroom" (Teekens, 2001, p. 23) and can be used to identify "discrepancies relevant for the planning of future staff selection and further training" (Teekens, 2001, p. 23). In response to Teekens, Gavin Sanderson suggests a number of modifications of her profile and introduces the concepts of the internationalisation of the academic Self and cosmopolitanism (Sanderson, 2006, 2008, 2011). Whilst he lists a large number of things a teacher might do to approach the ideal, he concludes that the complexities "lie in the personal and professional commitment it takes to become both a better teacher and someone with a well-developed cosmopolitan disposition" (Sanderson, forthcoming).

The profile developed by Teekens does not distinguish between the different tasks that a lecturer may have. It views teaching as complex, comprehensive responsibility. In many higher education institutions, however, not all teaching staff members have the same set of tasks. Some may be required to teach in English, but have few research tasks. Others may teach only in the national language, but be involved in the supervision of foreign students.

Similarly, the tasks of an individual lecturer may change considerably over time, i.e. from one academic year to the next, or even within the relatively limited time span of an academic year. This means that lecturers may be required to have different sets of competences and/or that an individual lecturer may be required to have different competences in various phases of his/her career. Teaching staff competences in relation to the international higher education working environment can be addressed in a more diversified manner by using an 'International Competences Matrix', in which tasks that are normally

undertaken by teaching staff members are set off against competences which are needed to fulfil the task well (see appendix). The background of the Matrix and an earlier version can be found in volumes of EAIE's Professional Development Series for International Educators (Beelen, 2007, pp. 17-19; Van Gaalen, 2010, pp. 52-54).

The first version of the 'International Competences Matrix' was developed by the Office for International Relations of Hanze University Groningen, University of Applied Sciences, in collaboration with the Office for Personnel & Organisation. It was developed in response to the need for a practical tool which could serve to alert both teaching staff and their heads of department to the fact that working in an international environment requires new and additional competences and that training teaching staff in 'weak' competence areas may be necessary in order to make a university's internationalisation policy a success. Heads of department were advised to use the tool during job interviews with potential new members of staff, but also in relation to current staff, e.g. in job appraisal talks. Teaching staff members were invited to use it in reflecting on their own needs for professional development. As such, the 'International Competences Matrix' formed an integral part of the HRM appraisal cycle.

The competences defined in the matrix are primarily based on the descriptions of the qualifications in Teekens's profile. With regard to the didactic competences, I have incorporated the work of Dineke Tigelaar and colleagues (Tigelaar et al., 2004). Proficiency in the English language is given a considerable amount of attention in the matrix, because outside the English-speaking world it is generally accepted that it is an important competence in relation to working in an international environment. The level descriptions have been adapted from those defined in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

The matrix reflects a number of influential studies that have been done on the topic of staff competences in relation to the higher education working environment. However, it is not carved in stone. It can be adapted to suit the specific situation of a higher education institution, e.g. by shortening or extending the list of tasks or by adapting the competence categories. Similarly, the level and the definition of the competences can be adapted to reflect the policy of a higher education institution with regard to its teaching staff.

The introduction of the 'International Competences Matrix' in the HRM appraisal cycle of a higher education institution should ideally be supplemented with making a range of personal and professional development options available to teaching staff members. The use of the matrix is, after all, intended to be a tool to stimulate the awareness of the need for specific or additional competences for working as a teacher in an internationalised environment and to foster the discussion on how to acquire or improve these competences. For many higher education institutions, the process of internationalisation means a transition from being a workplace steeped in a national, even regional, identity to becoming a multinational and multicultural working environment. That process can only be successful if an institution's human capital is given the opportunity and support to make that transition on a personal and professional level.

APPENDIX

INTERNATIONAL COMPETENCES MATRIX (April 2011)

Task / Competence	English Language Proficiency: understanding (listening and reading)	English Language Proficiency: speaking (interaction and production)	English Language Proficiency: writing	Didactic or research competences in an international context	Intercultural competences in an international context	Competences connected with education systems and different teaching and learning styles	Competences connected with the personal academic discipline in an international context	Competences connected with the international labour market and working environment of the professional field
Teaching in the national language (domestic classroom)	Can understand extended speech and follow complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. Can understand contemporary (literary) prose. Can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. (B2)	Can deal with most situations likely to arise. Can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life. (B1)		Is a good academic with good didactic skills (interpersonal and communication skills and skills as the facilitator of the learning process). Is capable of reflecting on his own teaching performance and is open to innovation.	Is aware of the fact that different cultures may be represented in the group and is able to make adjustments for cultural differences in his teaching and his interaction with the group.		Is familiar with the international context and literature of his subject and is capable of teaching his subject in an international context.	Is aware of the fact that the status of and requirements for the professions/jobs for which students are trained (qualifications needed, professional recognition, professional roles) may differ from country to country.
Academic counselling (domestic students)	Can understand extended speech and follow complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. Can understand contemporary (literary) prose. Can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. (B2)	Can deal with most situations likely to arise. Can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life. (B1)		Is a good academic with good didactic skills (interpersonal and communication skills and skills as the facilitator of the learning process). Is capable of reflecting on his own role as supervisor and counsellor and be open to innovation.	Is aware of the fact that different cultures may be represented in the student body of the programme and is able to make adjustments for cultural differences in his counselling activities and his interaction with individual students			Is aware of the fact that the status of and requirements for the professions/jobs for which students are trained (qualifications needed, professional recognition, professional roles) may differ from country to country.
Curriculum development (domestic classroom)	Can understand extended speech and follow complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. Can understand contemporary (literary) prose. Can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. (B2)	Can deal with most situations likely to arise. Can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life. (B1)		Is a good academic with good didactic skills (interpersonal and communication skills and skills as the facilitator of the learning process). Is capable of reflecting on his own contribution to the process of curriculum development and is open to innovation.	Is aware of the fact that different cultures may be represented in the student body of the programme and is able to make adjustments for possible cultural differences in the target audience of the curriculum.		Is familiar with the international context and literature of his subject and is capable of teaching his subject in an international context.	Is aware of the fact that the status of and requirements for the professions/jobs for which students are trained (qualifications needed, professional recognition, professional roles) may differ from country to country.
Teaching in English (int classroom)	Can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. Can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. Can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field. (C1)	Can use the language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. Can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate contributions skilfully to those of other speakers. Can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion. (C1)	Can express himself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. Can write about complex subjects, underlining the salient issues. Can select style appropriate to the reader in mind. (C1)	Is a good academic with good didactic skills (interpersonal and communication skills and skills as the facilitator of the learning process). Is capable of reflecting on his own teaching performance and be open to innovation.	Has basic knowledge of the cultures represented in the group and is able to make adjustments for cultural differences in his teaching and his interaction with the group.	Has a basic knowledge of international and cultural differences in teaching and learning styles, including the procedures and standards for assessing student performance and is capable of adapting his teaching to accommodate culturally diverse student audiences.	Knows the international context and literature of his subject well and is capable of teaching his subject in an international context.	Knows the main differences in the status of and requirements for the professions/jobs for which students are trained in relevant countries (qualifications needed, professional recognition, professional roles) and is able to incorporate this in his teaching.
Academic counselling of foreign students	Can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. Can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. Can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field. (C1)	Can use the language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. Can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate contributions skilfully to those of other speakers. Can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion. (C1)	Can express himself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. Can write about complex subjects, underlining the salient issues. Can select style appropriate to the reader in mind. (C1)	Is a good academic with good didactic skills (interpersonal and communication skills and skills as the facilitator of the learning process). Is capable of reflecting on his own role in the counselling process and is open to innovation.	Has basic knowledge of the cultures represented in the student body of the programme and is able to make adjustments for cultural differences in his counselling activities and his interaction with individual students.	Has a basic knowledge of international and cultural differences in teaching and learning styles, including the procedures and standards for assessing student performance and is able to make adjustments for cultural differences in his counselling activities and his interaction with individual students	Knows the international context and literature of his subject well and is capable of teaching his subject in an international context.	Knows the main differences in the status of and requirements for the professions/jobs for which students are trained in relevant countries (qualifications needed, professional recognition, professional roles) and is able to incorporate this in counselling activities and his interaction with individual students.
Curriculum development of English-taught curricula	Can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. Can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. Can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field. (C1)	Can use the language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. Can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate contributions skilfully to those of other speakers. Can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion. (C1)	Can express himself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. Can write about complex subjects, underlining the salient issues. Can select style appropriate to the reader in mind. (C1)	Is a good academic with good didactic skills (interpersonal and communication skills and skills as the facilitator of the learning process). Is capable of reflecting on his own contribution to the process of curriculum development and is open to innovation.	Has basic knowledge of the cultures represented in the student body of the programme and is able to make adjustments for cultural differences in the target audience of the curriculum.	Has a basic knowledge of international and cultural differences in teaching and learning styles, including the procedures and standards for assessing student performance and is capable of making adjustments for cultural differences in the target audience of the curriculum.	Knows the international context and literature of his subject well and is capable of making a valuable contribution to curriculum development in an international context.	Knows the main differences in the status of and requirements for the professions/jobs for which students are trained in relevant countries (qualifications needed, professional recognition, professional roles) and is able to incorporate this in curriculum development.

MATRIX CONTINUES ON NEXT PAGE

Supervising international work placements and final projects	Can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. Can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. Can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field. (C1)	Can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. Can express himself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. Can present a clear, smoothly flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure. (B2)	Can write clear, detailed texts, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. (B2)	Is a good academic with good didactic skills (interpersonal and communication skills and skills as the facilitator of the learning process). Is capable of reflecting on his own role as supervisor and counsellor and be open to innovation.	Has basic knowledge of the cultures represented in the student body of the programme and is able to make adjustments for cultural differences in his counselling activities and his interaction with individual students.	Has a basic knowledge of international and cultural differences in teaching and learning styles, including the procedures and standards for assessing student performance. Is able to recognize and assess the influence of cultural differences on the international period of the individual student.	Is aware of the fact that the status of and requirements for the professions/jobs for which students are trained (qualifications needed, professional recognition, professional roles) may differ from country to country.
Supervising international study periods	Can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. Can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. Can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field. (C1)	Can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. Can express himself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. Can present a clear, smoothly flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure. (B2)	Can write clear, detailed texts, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. (B2)	Is a good academic with good didactic skills (interpersonal and communication skills and skills as the facilitator of the learning process). Is capable of reflecting on his own role as supervisor and counsellor and be open to innovation.	Has basic knowledge of the cultures represented in the student body of the programme and is able to make adjustments for cultural differences in his counselling activities and his interaction with individual students.	Has a basic knowledge of international and cultural differences in teaching and learning styles, including the procedures and standards for assessing student performance. Is able to recognize and assess the influence of cultural differences on the study abroad experience of the individual student.	Is aware of the fact that the status of and requirements for the professions/jobs for which students are trained (qualifications needed, professional recognition, professional roles) may differ from country to country.
Participating in international conferences or meetings	Can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. Can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. Can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field. (C1)	Can use the language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. Can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate contributions skilfully to those of other speakers. Can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion. (C1)			Has a basic knowledge of intercultural differences and is able to make adjustments for them in collaborating with representatives from different countries.		
Maintaining international relations with partner institutions	Can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. Can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. Can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field. (C1)	Can use the language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. Can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate contributions skilfully to those of other speakers. Can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion. (C1)	Can express himself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. Can write about complex subjects, underlining the salient issues. Can select style appropriate to the reader in mind. (C1)	Is a good academic with good didactic skills (interpersonal and communication skills and skills as the facilitator of the learning process). Is capable of discussing educational concepts with representatives from partner institutions and determine whether collaboration could be useful or successful.	Has a basic knowledge of the cultures in the countries of the various partner institutions and is able to make adjustments for cultural differences in collaborating with representatives of the partner institutions.	Has a basic knowledge of international and cultural differences in teaching and learning styles, including the procedures and standards for assessing student performance.	Is aware of the fact that the status of and requirements for the professions/jobs for which students are trained (qualifications needed, professional recognition, professional roles) may differ from country to country.
Teaching abroad in English	Can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. Can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. Can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field. (C1)	Can use the language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. Can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate contributions skilfully to those of other speakers. Can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion. (C1)	Can express himself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. Can write about complex subjects, underlining the salient issues. Can select style appropriate to the reader in mind. (C1)	Is a good academic with good didactic skills (interpersonal and communication skills and skills as the facilitator of the learning process). Is capable of reflecting on his own teaching performance and is open to innovation.	Has basic knowledge of the cultures represented in the group and is able to make adjustments for cultural differences in his teaching and his interaction with the group.	Has a basic knowledge of international and cultural differences in teaching and learning styles, including the procedures and standards for assessing student performance and is capable of adapting his teaching to accommodate culturally diverse student audiences.	Knows the main differences in the status of and requirements for the professions/jobs for which students are trained in relevant countries (qualifications needed, professional recognition, professional roles) and is able to incorporate this in his teaching.
Doing research	Can understand extended speech even when it is not clearly structured and when relationships are only implied and not signalled explicitly. Can understand long and complex factual and literary texts, appreciating distinctions of style. Can understand specialised articles and longer technical instructions, even when they do not relate to my field. (C1)	Can deal with most situations likely to arise. Can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life. (B1)		Is a good academic with good research skills.	Is aware of the main international and cultural differences in attitudes and approaches to academic research and is capable of adapting to diverse research environments.	Is thoroughly familiar with the state of the art in academic and/or applied research in his subject area	
Doing research in an international context	Has no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, can read with ease virtually all forms of the written language, including abstract, structurally or linguistically complex texts such as manuals, specialised articles and literary works. (C2)	Can use the language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. Can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate contributions skilfully to those of other speakers. Can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion. (C1)	Can write clear, smoothly flowing text in an appropriate style. Can write complex letters, reports or articles which present a case with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. Can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works. (C2)	Is a good academic with good research skills.	Is aware of the main international and cultural differences in attitudes and approaches to academic research and is capable of adapting to diverse research environments.	Is thoroughly familiar with the state of the art in academic and/or applied research in his subject area	
Publishing in English	Has no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken language whether live or broadcast, even when delivered at fast native speed, can read with ease virtually all forms of the written language, including abstract, structurally or linguistically complex texts such as manuals, specialised articles and literary works. (C2)	Can use the language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. Can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate contributions skilfully to those of other speakers. Can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion. (C1)	Can write clear, smoothly flowing text in an appropriate style. Can write complex letters, reports or articles which present a case with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. Can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works. (C2)	Is a good academic with good research skills.	Is aware of the main international and cultural differences in attitudes and approaches to academic research and is capable of adapting to diverse research environments.	Is thoroughly familiar with the state of the art in academic and/or applied research in his subject area	

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LEARNING TO MANAGE SYSTEMIC EFFECTS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INTERNATIONAL STRATEGIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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BACKGROUND

A pressing question in current higher education policy discourse is how to effectively incorporate the ever-increasing importance of the international context into higher education strategy and institutional practices. Although international aspects of higher education (HE) management have received increasing attention over the last decades with a considerable growth in research papers available on the topic (Kehm & Teichler, 2007) “little has been written about the implementation of internationalization plans” (Childress, 2010) This entails a lack of analytical tools for understanding the implementation process at higher education institutions (HEI).

The high policy saliency of internationalisation is not yet matched by equal importance as a research field. Especially in terms of theory-driven research and the development of analytical frameworks the research field has not excelled (Gornitzka, Gulbrandsen, & Trondal, 2003).

The PhD project presented in this paper aims at providing parts of the missing terminology and give an analytical framework to better understand the implementation process of international strategies at HEIs through the theories of Organizational Learning (OL) and System Dynamics (SD).

THEORY AND RESEARCH

With regard to current research on internationalisation of HE Kehm and Teichler (2007) point out that the borders between what can be considered research on internationalisation in higher education and other fields of research have been more blurred over the last ten years as internationalisation has obtained a more prevalent position in general research on higher education. They still discern certain similarities in the choice of topics. The seven most recurring topics are:

- Mobility of students and academic staff;

- Mutual influences of higher education systems on each other;
- Internationalisation of the substance of teaching, learning and research;
- Institutional strategies of internationalisation;
- Knowledge transfer;
- Cooperation and competition;
- National and supranational policies as regarding the international dimension of higher education (p. 265)

The proposed PhD-project will situate itself within the track of studies on “institutional strategies of internationalisation”. The focus of the thesis will not be the making of strategies, but how HEIs respond to strategic demands and assure their implementation. It will therefore contribute to the sub-theme “(strategic) management of internationalisation” (ibid.). Kehm and Teichler note that the literature often has “a clear emphasis on persons rather than on institutions or policies” (ibid., p. 268). This thesis will aim for an understanding of a HEI as a dynamic system where policies, institution and persons are interdependent.

Out of five shifts in leading themes in current research pointed out by Teichler (2004, in Kehm and Teichler, 2007), this project would contribute to a shift “from administration of mobility to strategic action and systems steering of internationalisation” (p. 263).

THEORETICAL CONSTRUCTS OF SYSTEM DYNAMICS AND ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING THEORY

Jay Forrester founded SD theory as an academic tradition in the late 1950's (Forrester, 1961, 1969, 1971b). A central feature of the theory is explaining how complex systems respond to changes. Such responses to change have a tendency to follow certain dynamic patterns, which are critical to identify and understand in order to avoid surprises and to seize opportunities

Meadows (Meadows & Wright, 2009) explains a system as having three defining factors: elements, interconnections and a function (non-human system) or purpose (human system). The elements would be tangible aspects like a university, a department or a professor, but can also be intangibles like the pride in being part of a university. Interconnections are the signals sent between the elements, often in form of information, that make the elements respond in certain ways. The function or purpose is the “raison d'être” for the system, like when many systems have the function of perpetuating themselves. When a less critical aspect of a system's activities conflicts with its main purpose it will easily get discarded or diluted. Internationalisation, although important to the main system, i.e. the HEI, is often perceived as a less critical pursuit to many of the subsystems in an HEI.

SD theory uses a few building blocks to understand how the different elements, interconnections and the function/purpose of a system interact. The main building blocks are “stocks and flows” and “feedback loops” (Sterman, 2000, p. 191). These building blocks are combined in different ways to an aggregated model of how complex systems behave and the patterns they follow. In a system with a high number of interactions and several subsystems with conflicting functions/purposes, like an HEI, the model can explain “the counterintuitive behaviour of social systems” (Forrester, 1971a). In a pilot study preparing the grounds for this project a number of systemic features were identified in the

internationalisation process of a HEI like the impact of nonlinearities, layers of limits, delays and bounded rationality, creating systemic patterns like policy resistance, path dependency and “seeking the wrong goal” (Restad, 2010). To be able to think outside the habits such patterns create, decision makers at HEIs will need an analytical tool to make the patterns visible. System dynamics theory seems particularly constructive in doing so.

THE USE OF ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING THEORY

The pilot study used system dynamics as sole theoretical base. David Lane (1999) argues that SD theory can work fine as a self-standing social theory within the functionalist paradigm. However, he further argues that SD theory could have ample potential when coupled with “social theories which dissolve the individual/society divide by taking a dialectical, or feedback, stance. It can (...) bring a formal modeling approach to the ‘agency/structure’ debate within social theory” (Lane, 1999, p. 501). The PhD project will go with this second argument coupling SD theory with organisational learning theory. “The literature in the organizational learning and knowledge transfer field has grown exponentially over the past 15 years, resulting in the emergence of a ‘learning perspective” (Rashman, Withers, & Hartley, 2009, p. 464). This learning perspective with a more theoretical and systematic approach to learning in internationalisation, as opposed to the widespread use of best-practices approaches, makes this choice very promising both academically and for practitioners in the field. Further it can be noted that not only is there a lack of a learning perspective in international strategy implementation in higher education, but in general “it is striking that there is little research on learning and knowledge transfer in the non-profit sectors” (ibid.).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND DESIGN

Although SD and organisational learning theory has been applied successfully to a very wide range of managerial challenges, it has not to my knowledge been applied to the field of international strategy implementation at HEIs. To explore this potential I propose the following research question:

HOW DO HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS LEARN TO MANAGE SYSTEMIC
EFFECTS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS OF INTERNATIONAL STRATEGIES?

The following sub-questions will be used to elaborate the main question: How does organizational learning theory apply to the implementation process of international strategies in HEIs?

1. Can systems theory, and more specifically system dynamics theory, serve as a tool to analyse implementation of internationalisation strategies in HEIs?
2. What are the elements and the interconnections with relation to the implementation of international strategies in higher education institutions?
3. What is the function or purpose of internationalisation for the HEI, and how does it correlate with the purpose/function of its subunits/subsystems?
4. What kind of dynamic patterns can be observed in the system?

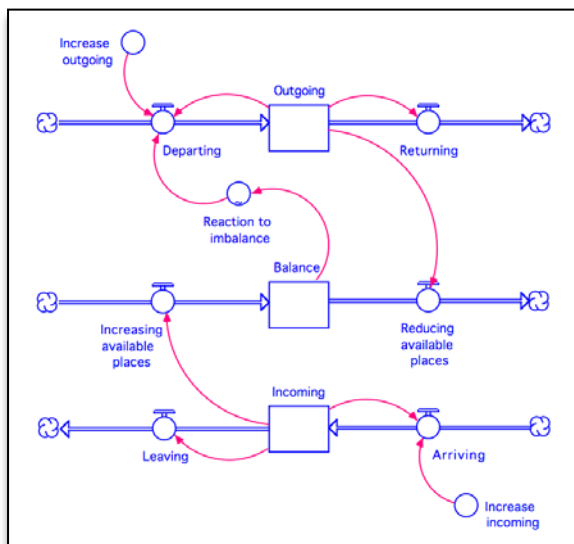
5. What can be learned with respect to effective implementation of internationalisation strategies at HEIs?

Methodologically the study will be carried out with two embedded ethnographic case studies where one University and one University College will be studied. An ethnographic case study implies a longer stay in the studied environment to be able to describe the situation from an emic perspective, i.e. the insider's view. This perspective is central in the search for mental models, or ways of thinking, active in the system. One of the challenges will thus be to identify these mental models within the institutions and to translate them into system dynamic models. The approach is intended to be action research based with an iterative modeling process going over two years. In action research the researcher seeks explicitly to improve the studied process during the study.

Although the study will rely heavily on observations and direct involvement, the main focus will be the development of a theoretical structure to account for the systemic challenges faced by the institutions in the internationalisation process.

FINDINGS FROM A PILOT STUDY

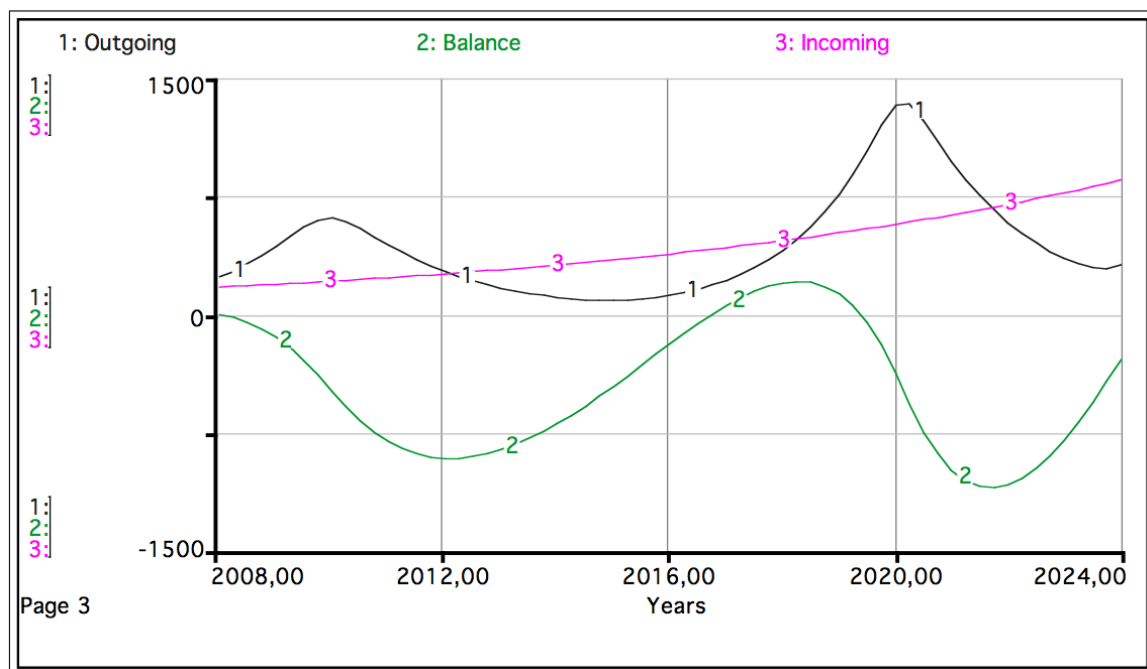
A pilot study was carried out in 2010 where a specific strategic challenge at a HEI was chosen to illustrate the systemic nature of any implementation initiative and how the different parts of the international strategy are interconnected. After identifying the increase of outgoing student mobility as a continuing challenge for the institution, a model of the issue was created. Through observations and interviews two main guiding principles for mobility at the institution were identified. These were “partnership exclusiveness”, which holds that mobility outside partnership agreements should be discouraged and “reciprocity”, i.e. an intention of equal exchange numbers with partner institutions over time. These principles are among the most commonly used guidelines for mobility in Europe and therefore no surprise. The surprise lays in the conclusions drawn after they had been matched with the strategic goals for mobility. First, based on the guiding principles, or interconnectors in SD language, a simplified overarching model was made as seen under. A more detailed explanation of the model (and its submodels) is to be found in the pilot study (Restad, 2010).



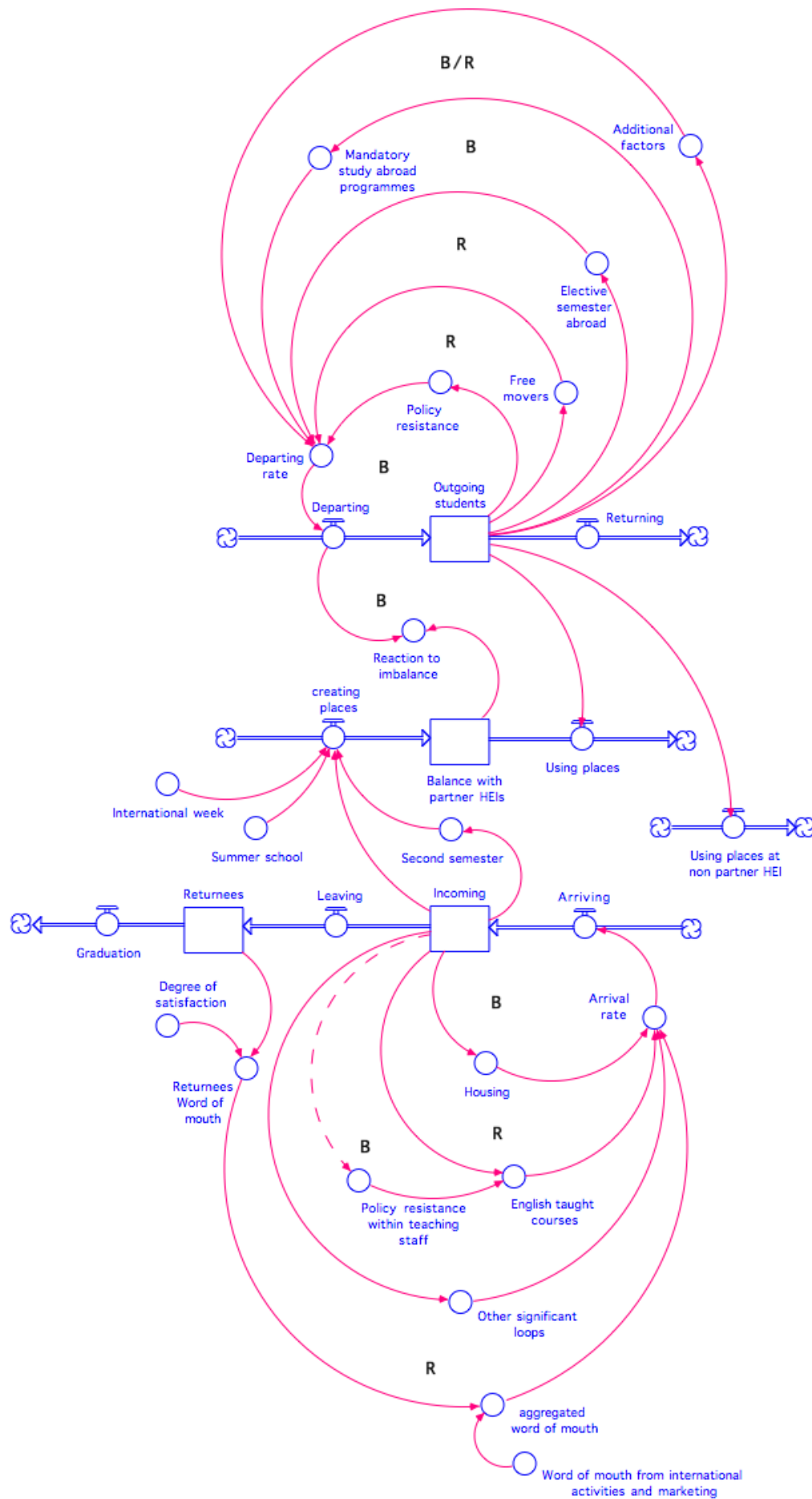
The outcome of simulations showed that if the institution based their implementation on these principles they would counter-intuitively not be able to implement their mobility goals. On the contrary, after two years with increase in outgoing numbers a period of 6-8 years with decrease would follow. Ten years later the institution would be back where it started out.

The reason is to be found in the mismatch between tools for sending out students and the tools for attracting foreign students to the institution.

Without possibilities to steer the inflow of students, a sudden increase in outgoing students creates an imbalance according to the reciprocity-principle. To honour the principle the balance has to be restored through a decrease in outgoing students. The result is that the implementation of the strategy is assured to fail as long as the guiding principles are enforced. No institution would enforce these principles to the extent as seen in the illustration above, but the illustration can make the HEI aware of why the stated principles are inadequate in order to implement the stated strategic goal. In the PhD project organisational learning theory will shed light on how the guiding principles mentioned here can be seen as an “espoused theory” (what we say we do), which the implementation managers are forced to bypass through a “theory in use”, (what we actually do), in order to succeed.



At some point the routines created by the theory-in-use get internalised to a point where nobody realises that the guiding principles are problematic, and we fall prey to what Argyris (Starkey, Tempest, & McKinlay, 2004, p. 23) calls “skilled incompetence”. Other findings from the study include a description of how the creation of mandatory study abroad periods could lead to a decrease in outgoing mobility, as well as the identification of a number of limits to growth in outgoing and incoming mobility. A simplified full model from the pilot study can be seen below where each of the loops represents a sub model.



CURRENT STATE OF THE PROJECT

The project has been maturing through the pilot study, but the recent appointment as a PhD-bursary at the University College of Lillehammer from March 2011, under supervision of Prof. Dr. Hans de Wit, Hogeschool van Amsterdam, University of Applied Sciences and Prof. Dr. Jürgen Enders and Prof. Dr. Hans Vossensteyn at the Center for Higher Education Policy Studies at the University of Twente, situates the project in its very early phase. There are still many challenges to explore like the choice of conceptual language within the different sub-branches of organisational learning theory, the form of involvement in the institutions along with the more specific details of the case studies' research design. However, the mutual interest in finding a more constructive approach to international strategy implementation among all involved parties makes tackling the challenges ahead to a privileged journey.

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Helge also studied at the University of Oslo (Norway), University of Bergen (Norway), Universidad de Habana (Cuba), Universidad de Buenos Aires (Argentina), Fudan University (Shanghai, China), and the University of Utrecht (The Netherlands). He worked as a clerk at NATO headquarters in Brussels, and was EAIE Conference host committee member for the International Relations Office at the Norwegian University of Science and Technology.

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EUROPEAN UNIVERSITIES: VICTIMS OR AGENTS OF CHANGE?

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ABSTRACT

One of the greatest challenges facing higher education today is its own reinvention. Internationalisation is both a key institutional response to the pressures of globalisation and a powerful driver for change, generating a fundamental shift in strategic vision and realisation within the universities. All universities are exposed to the same supranational pressures but located in different national and institutional contexts and traditions. This raises the question of the institutional conditions and characteristics that are more likely to create advantage or disadvantage in an increasingly complex and competitive environment.

The same global pressures are generating new models of national legislative frameworks, modifying the conditions in which universities operate. The dual shift towards greater autonomy and accountability in management, organisation and financial arrangements both broadens and places constraints on the scope of action, leading to diverse responses as well as new tensions.

Whatever the external environment may be, each university has at its disposal its own unique institutional characteristics that can play a key role in forging its future. Differences in age, size, location, academic configuration and resource base will impact on ability and ambition, but historical legacy and sense of purpose have the potential to become precious resources in crafting a coherent and sustainable international strategy.

Beyond traditional organisational tools such as strategic planning and governance arrangements, there is also institutional identity and drive that can be captured and transformed into a capacity for responsiveness, enabling each institution to find its niche in the global higher education market. Power of imagination (Marginson, 2007) plays a

significant part in determining to what extent universities submit to the forces of change or transform them into opportunities for regeneration.

T

he biggest challenge facing universities today is their own reinvention in a rapidly changing world. Extreme pressures of globalisation are generating a new higher education paradigm and any university seeking to develop a meaningful response is required to go beyond simply realigning activities and undertake a fundamental shift in strategic vision and realisation (Eckel et al, 1998; Balogun and Hope Hailey, 1999). Internationalisation is increasingly identified as a key institutional response with the potential to become a powerful driver for change (Taylor, 2004). It becomes both an object and agent of organisational transformation.

“Internationalisation is changing the world of higher education and globalisation is changing the world of internationalisation.” (Knight, 2008, p. 1)

There is much in the literature on what internationalisation is or is not and what the rationales for internationalisation might be, but in identifying internationalisation as a response to the new environment, it becomes an integral element of strategic planning processes in universities (Knight and De Wit, 1997; Knight, 2001). As internationalisation becomes part of strategic vision and values, it is increasingly embedded across functional areas and into policies, structures and processes (Lewis, 2007), impacting significantly on institutional management (Taylor, 2004) and implying a radical reorganisation of the way the university organises its operations.

The mainstreaming of internationalisation is a global phenomenon that is inevitably influenced by local traditions and practices, producing diversity in interpretation and response (Dale 1999). In the last decade, Europe’s most powerful driver has been the Bologna Process, which has not only transformed substance and structure of systems and institutions in the emerging European Higher Education Area, but has also led to a proliferation of agendas for greater internationalisation both at national and institutional levels (Reichert, 2009).

This article considers the impact of the external context on a university’s strategic capacity for internationalisation and explores which institutional resources might become enablers for responsiveness. It suggests that sense of institutional identity and power of imagination are often underexploited resources in the process of change.

The conclusions are drawn from a small-scale study of non-state Italian universities, defined as privately-funded providers operating within a public sector framework (Hunter 2009), that have identified internationalisation as a key element of their strategic response. They were chosen precisely because of their hybrid profile which suggests both a match to the new autonomous university model as promoted in the current higher education discourse and a potential to act as forerunners for change in a broader sector (Hunter, 2010).

CHANGING NATIONAL LANDSCAPES AND INSTITUTIONAL BEHAVIOURS

The drive to reinvent higher education is directly linked to the emergence of the knowledge society in which universities are called upon to make a key contribution to competitiveness through the provision of relevant qualifications, employable graduates and innovative and transferable knowledge (Vaira, 2004). National legislative frameworks shift to new models of greater deregulation and decentralisation that promote greater institutional autonomy and accountability in management, organisation and financial arrangements. They seek to make universities less reliant on state support and more responsive to their environment.

As universities seek alternative income streams, they become increasingly accountable to market with traditional forms of teaching and research co-existing alongside more entrepreneurial forms of university services and stronger engagement with external stakeholders. As they are also expected to become more accountable in their use of state-allocated resources, dual accountability to state and market creates tensions and places constraints on the range of options that are available to the universities (Sporn, 1999; Teixeira et al., 2004; Enders & Jongbloed, 2007; Van Vught, 2007).

New competitive pressures emerge. Governments introduce competitive dynamics for more efficient use of restricted public funds, but universities also compete with one another for alternative income sources from the private sector or international agencies. Competition for students also emerges as a new phenomenon, and not only amongst traditional universities but also with an increasing number of new providers in both non- and for-profit sector that have often responded faster to the growing global demand for higher education. Universities compete not only for income but increasingly also for prestige, and strategic positioning becomes critical as universities seek to gain competitive advantage in both national and international arenas (Scott, 1998; Sporn, 2003).

A new trend is emerging in competitive behaviour among European universities (Neave, 2002; Enders, 2004; Enders & Jongbloed, 2007) as they seek to transform traditional forms of international co-operation into competitive advantage, whether in the form of strategic international alliances, partnerships and networks for a range of activities such as the provision of joint programmes, research, and cross border education (Van der Wende, 2001) or setting up business linkages and developing commercial contracts in consortia with locally-based industries for regional competitiveness (Davies, 2001a; 2001b). International co-operation becomes a way to compete, but there is also competition for strategic co-operation to raise profile and gain prestige.

In Europe, traditional academic rationales remain strong but are increasingly seen as means to achieve specific institutional objectives and may also be linked to income-generating endeavours (Van der Wende, 2001). Traditional international activities such as student mobility are becoming more integrated into the curriculum as part of the learning experience. Mobility is not only of students or staff, but increasingly also of programmes and campuses as more ambitious universities export competences through delocalisation. Mobility is not only exchange but also recruitment of international students as universities invest in competitive efforts to attract the best talent possible or to compensate for demographic decline.

Curricula are internationalised not only to meet the needs of internationally-recruited students but also to transfer appropriate knowledge and skills for the global workplace to local students.

Internationally competitive infrastructures and technologies are developed to ensure universities are attractive to an international population of students and staff. Research strategies built around international partnerships, international funding and international standards become key to institutional positioning.

As universities go beyond national policies and align across borders with the international practices that best serve them, they are required to review the way they manage their internal operations. Internationalisation exposes the many challenges of local administrative and academic traditions and cultures that are out of step with the new requirements of a global higher education environment. New organisational approaches and structures as well as professional competences are introduced to implement and embed internationalisation.

While institutional strategies for internationalisation begin to emerge in the new European landscape, the speed and pattern vary considerably as not all universities are equally placed within their national systems to respond to the changes (Reichert & Wächter, 2000). An inability or unwillingness to respond quickly to the new European model of autonomy and diversity may lie within the institutions themselves, but the constraints placed upon them by national policies (Nokkola, 2007) will inevitably impact on their capacity to respond.

Countries that failed to cope with the earlier challenges that emerged during the explosion of demand for higher education in the last 50 years struggle to introduce effective Bologna reforms and align with the emerging European Higher Education Area (Van der Wende, 2001). If the national system is caught up in its own path dependency of historical practice that makes it slow or unwilling to change (Krücken, 2003), this will create significant challenges for the individual institution that is seeking to embark on a process of transformation and yet is “locked into its national context” (Scott, 1998). However, even in a constraining legal environment of regulatory pressures, micromanagement, political instability or lack of genuine institutional autonomy, there are always spaces and opportunities, however small, that universities can seek to exploit (Clark, 1998; Davies, 2001a; Shattock, 2003).

Institutional differences in age, size, location, academic configuration, reputation and resource base will determine the range of options and constraints available, (Van der Wende, 2001; Sporn, 2003; Marginson, 2007) but each university is also endowed with a particular historical legacy and unique set of institutional tools and resources that can be exploited to develop a response. The ambition and ability to make a greater effort will depend significantly on how practices and patterns of response have developed over time and become part of the institutional identity and culture (Krücken, 2003). As the changes in the global higher education environment accelerate and multiply, it is likely that there will be an increasing stratification of institutions as not all will be able, or willing, to respond to the growing pressures for change.

CRITICAL FACTORS FOR INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSIVENESS

“[...] all universities are subject to the same process of globalisation – partly as objects, victims even, of these processes, but partly as subjects or key agents of globalisation.” (Scott, 1998, p. 122)

Four interacting elements are identified in determining trajectories of individual institutions (Marginson, 2007). Firstly, there is the geostrategic position of the country within the changing global environment, and secondly, there is the national history of policy making and positioning strategies that create the context in which universities operate. The third element is the history and resources of the individual institution, and fourthly, there is the university's position taking. Interaction of these four elements will determine the manner in which universities respond to an increasingly complex and competitive global environment.

The study of a small group of Italian non-state universities sought to identify institutional characteristics that were more likely to create capacity for responsiveness. The universities shared a number of commonalities and differences. All were exposed to the same global pressures and operated in a highly constraining national regulatory framework with a long tradition of central control and uniformity. All shared a strong commitment of service to their stakeholder community as expressed in their mission, governance arrangements and educational focus, but demonstrated differences in age, size, history, location and resource base.

Internationalisation was either the key strategy or a key element of the strategic direction. The degree and speed of success varied across the group, but three broad and closely interconnected factors emerged as being essential elements in defining an ability to respond: environmental awareness and institutional interplay, intertwining of institutional tools and resources, leadership understanding of institutional identity and power of imagination.

1. ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS AND INSTITUTIONAL INTERPLAY

Responsiveness is first of all environmental awareness. Change requires the ability to understand current and future trends about the environment and to exploit any external conditions or shifts to institutional advantage. Interplays of internal and external drivers are illustrated in the following diagram. Internal drivers are considered to be either static, and therefore non-adaptive, or dynamic and adaptive to change, while the external drivers are defined as either stable or turbulent. The continuous line indicates the most appropriate institutional pathway and implies a conscious, deliberate strategic choice whereas the broken line represents an inappropriate pathway as a result of unsuitable strategy or ad hoc decisions resulting in strategic drift.

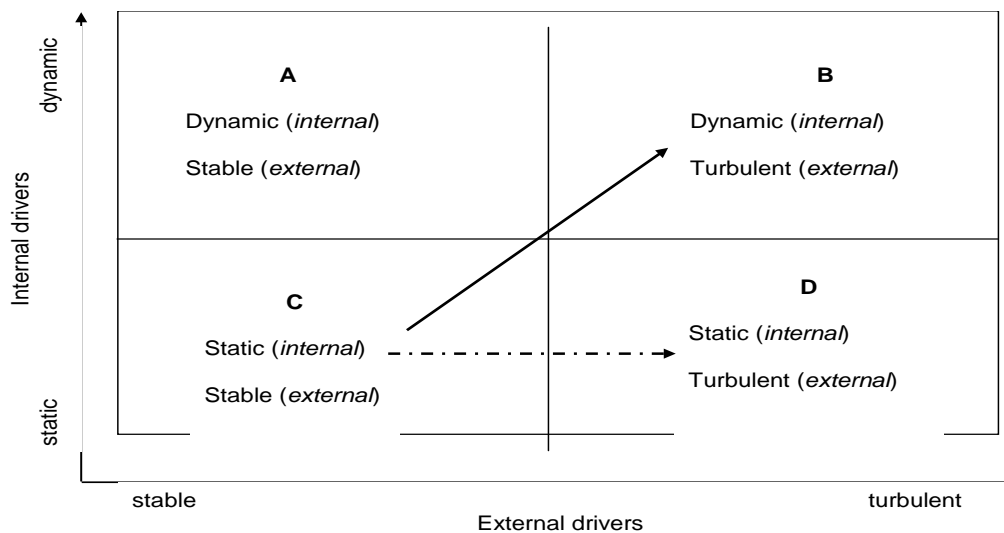


FIGURE 1: INTERPLAY OF EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL DRIVERS (HUNTER, F. 2009)

In the case studies, the national context had been relatively stable for a number of years and the universities were typically positioned in box C. Each university had found its own niche and lack of strong external drivers had led to complacency and lack of dynamism. However, when the external drivers became turbulent, it became imperative to accelerate the internal dynamics and move from C to B in order to reposition in the most favourable conditions available. Where the internal dynamics had consolidated toward a more static culture, the response was not rapid or creative enough, and as the speed of change accelerated, the result was a drift to D, the least favourable position of all.

The trigger for change may come from different sources, but the study highlighted the key role of external representation in the Board of Trustees. Where response was most effective, the Board was composed of members from a broad range of professional backgrounds. Members not only had an appropriate range of expertise, but were also directly exposed through their own professions to global forces operating in the external environment. They saw the consequences of non-responsiveness and attributed concrete meaning to the type of change that was required for the universities to remain relevant institutions.

In two universities, their understanding of the environment and assumptions of future trends set the framework for a new strategy of internationalisation and legitimised a degree of change that would re-define institutional identity and direction, stretching them far beyond current capacity in both financial and human resources. The impact and disruptive force of the Bologna Process was exploited as an internal lever to awaken international ambition and influence strategic direction. External change became internal change.

2. INTERTWINING INSTITUTIONAL TOOLS AND RESOURCES FOR CHANGE

The study highlighted differences in institutional approach to internationalisation according to each university's particular heritage and ambition. However, where internationalisation emerged as a coherent response to a changing environment, the universities chose a comprehensive, integrated approach to internationalisation that connected strategy to structures and support.

STRATEGY

Whatever strategic direction is chosen for internationalisation, it must be meaningful to the institutional mission (Van der Wende, 1999). The universities had a strong sense of institutional purpose and the new strategy emerged from a recontextualisation of their original mission (Sporn, 1999, 2003; Davies, 2001a; Shattock, 2003). Creating a connection between the future vision and the institutional past gave the mission a new focus, while linking institutional values and beliefs to those of internationalisation.

However, simply articulating internationalisation in the mission is not enough. None of the universities had extensive experience in strategic planning, but those that demonstrated the capability to design and implement a long-term strategy for internationalisation were able to bring about real change. This was achieved through carefully planned processes of “logical incrementalism” that set realistic targets, but at the same time stretched them beyond their current capabilities and resources (Duderstadt, 2000).

A strategy for change is a comprehensive one that includes all university activities in education and research, and is linked to systematic quality processes that both measure performance and stimulate continuous improvement and learning (Van der Wende, 1999). It is underpinned by a coherent human resources development policy in order to build capacity and long-term sustainability. The strategy becomes a living document that builds and stimulates active involvement of all the relevant stakeholders on a daily basis, transforming their beliefs and behaviours.

This is no easy task. Transformative change processes remove a sense of safety and familiarity and expose university members to new vulnerabilities. The study pointed to carefully planned and enacted consultation and communication processes as key, firstly to actively engage the wider community and achieve consensus, and secondly in maintaining the momentum for the change and embedding the new policies.

STRUCTURES

Whether internationalisation becomes the new institutional direction or is fully integrated into the general strategy, it will require appropriate structures to carry out and drive forward the actions according to a defined set of targets and timescales.

The study highlighted the importance of carefully designed governance structures with the authority and ability to realise the strategic response. The universities sought to act as agile organisations and developed instruments of management in line with their declared mission of service to their stakeholder community. This entailed cultivating a more cohesive internal identity through tighter relationships between the different governing bodies as well as defining clearer roles and interactions for the different academic and administrative units. Achieving an appropriate balance between the different parts of the university is a constant challenge but those universities that sought to overcome difficulties by nurturing positive working relations in a climate of engagement and trust were able to drive their strategies forward more successfully.

SUPPORT

The strategy will also need to be underpinned by a sound financial plan. If the new direction takes the university beyond its current capacity, it will most likely imply a change in financial strategy that identifies new income streams and develops a more diversified funding base (Clark, 1998; Sporn, 1999; 2003; Shattock, 2003).

The study highlighted the increasing trend towards entrepreneurialism. The universities sought ways to generate new resources for new or expanded ventures in education and research by capitalising on their expertise and reputation. They were initiating new types of alliances and partnerships with a wider external stakeholder community for more systematic co-operation and income generation to diversify their funding base and foster long-term sustainability of their chosen direction. Internally, they set up new resource allocation criteria and incentive schemes that rewarded results according to the new direction and stimulated individual entrepreneurialism within the university community.

Strategy, structures and support are carefully interconnected to ensure that they produce maximum energy to drive the change forward. Internationalisation becomes synonymous with transformation.

3. LEADERSHIP, INSTITUTIONAL IDENTITY AND THE POWER OF IMAGINATION

Leadership as “the engine for change” (Kotter, 1996) is vital to the process. In a university environment, leadership must be able to set the new direction and then inspire and convince the different parts of the university to accept the change and collaborate for its realisation. It is leadership that is both astute and insightful, driving forward the strategy with determination while drawing on the expertise and knowledge of the members and encouraging them to facilitate and support the change (Olson and Eoyang, 2001).

The study highlighted the importance of selecting leaders in line with strategic needs and according to precise profiles across the institution. New leaders with appropriate expertise were put in place not only at the very top of the university, but throughout the different schools, faculties, departments and administrative offices. They were given significant scope for action within their respective areas, but worked together as a senior management team responsible for the success of the overall strategy. They demonstrated the ability not only to drive the different objectives forward, but also to build cohesion and commitment in their teams. They were able to do so because of their own belief in - and identification with - the university, which became powerful resources in facing risk and uncertainty. As difficulties were overcome and objectives realised, the sense of pride and self-belief spread across the university and inevitable resistance to the new direction receded.

Each institution will find itself in a particular context in terms of its own historical development, which will define its degree of robustness or vulnerability in dealing with its particular set of challenges. What becomes essential is the institutional willingness to face the future with determination and ambition. Those that are better endowed because of age, size, reputation or financial and human resources are better placed to respond, but the institution’s self-belief plays a major part in activating the response and creating institutional energy to sustain the process over time. The structures or processes in themselves will not generate responsiveness. They are essential but not sufficient to bring about the transformation.

Beyond traditional organisational tools at the disposal of leadership, there is institutional drive that can be captured and transformed into a capacity for responsiveness, enabling each institution to find its niche in the global higher education market. Power of imagination (Marginson, 2007) played a significant part in determining to what extent the universities become victims or agents of change.

While leadership initiates the process of transformation, it is institutional will that sustains it. The decision to internationalise is not only a question of changing processes and structures but about changing beliefs and behaviours. Greater cohesion and sense of commitment and belonging gave the institutions the energy and will to face the many risks, pressures and tensions that accompany the process. As people came together in new endeavours, different patterns of behaviour emerged and their sense of identity adapted to the new reality.

Here lies the importance of leadership with the power of imagination to create the new vision in line with institutional sense of identity and purpose. It is leadership that is able to build an ambitious but credible project that will engage the university and alter the way it thinks about itself. It is through power of imagination that leadership finds a way to inspire the university members, combine and prioritise talents and resources in line with the new objectives and nurture institutional capacity for self-renewal. By learning to think strategically (and imaginatively) about their future, universities can become “bureaucracies of change” (Clark, 2004) in response to a constantly changing environment. Transformation requires both determination and imagination.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Change is a messy cocktail (Pettigrew, 1979) and requires insightful leadership to initiate and embed a strategy for institutional internationalisation. Successful and sustainable transformation as defined by Pettigrew and Whipp’s 1991 influential model of strategic change is a result of interplays and interconnections not only of the objectives for internationalisation and the process of legitimising and implementing them but also of institutional purpose and identity and how the university interacts with its environment. Internationalisation is not a single event but is an ongoing transformative process generated and sustained by the behaviours and beliefs of the university members.

The cases in the study highlighted how universities can position themselves through their own efforts even when they are inevitably constrained by their local environments. The more ambitious seek to leapfrog restrictive national frameworks and exploit international trends as levers for change. They become proactive rather than reactive organisations, able to envision transformation through internationalisation. They become the agents of their own change.

Responsiveness lies not only in identifying appropriate instruments for change but in harnessing the energy to embark on a process of transformation. That energy lies in the institution’s own self-belief and sense of purpose. Institutional energy and ambition determine to what extent the individual universities become victims submitting to the forces of change or agents that transform these forces into opportunities for regeneration. In the new globalised environment, the greatest challenge for universities is the desire to embrace that change.

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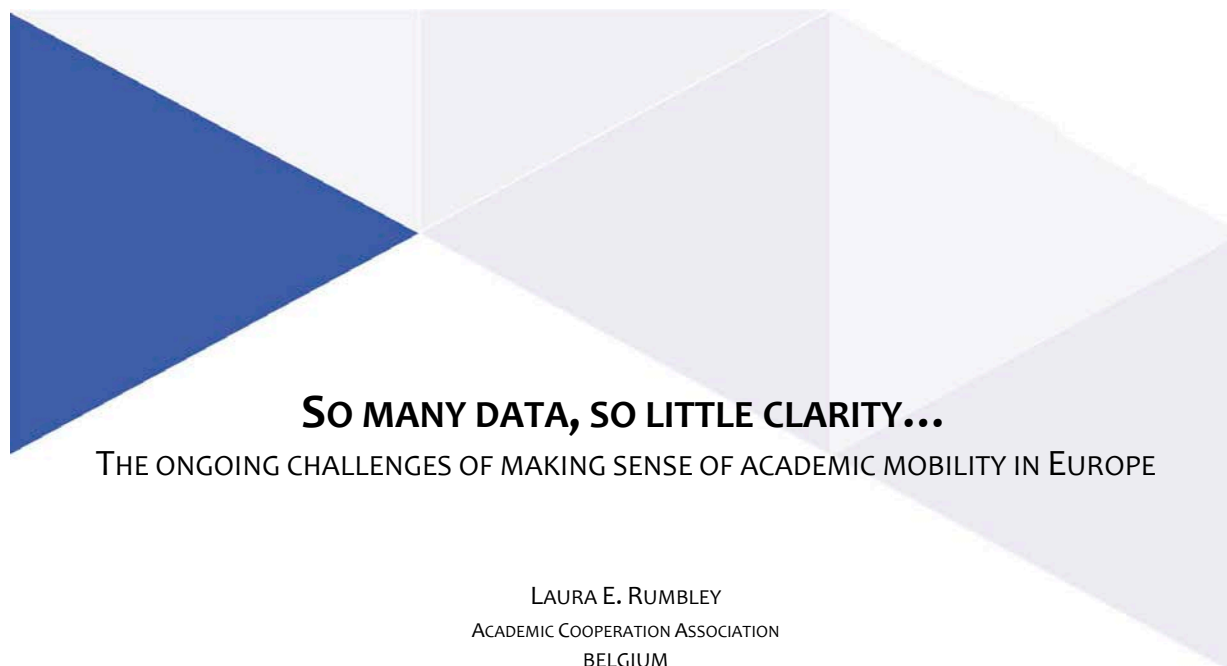
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SO MANY DATA, SO LITTLE CLARITY...

THE ONGOING CHALLENGES OF MAKING SENSE OF ACADEMIC MOBILITY IN EUROPE

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Mobility of students and staff is arguably one of the bedrocks of the internationalization of higher education in Europe and elsewhere around the world. Indeed, rare is the institution (or the national or supra-national actor with a stake in higher education) that does not place student and/or staff mobility at (or near) the heart of its internationalization agenda.

Mobility is a central focus for internationalization efforts for a number of very logical reasons. In principle, it is an activity that is fairly straightforward to implement and can yield tangible, quantifiable results in a relatively short period of time. It is also an aspect of internationalization that is easily understood by relevant stakeholders. Generally (although certainly not exclusively) academic mobility is perceived in Europe as non-controversial in nature, and indeed is broadly supported as a ‘good thing’ for the individuals and institutions involved. Moreover, as most higher education institutions are actively (if not predominantly) involved in teaching, attending to the internationalization of the student population has been a primary consideration for institutional leaders and policymakers, with mobility emerging as the core component of internationalization strategies related to students. Though often more difficult to define and assess, the international movement of all kinds of academic staff is also critically important in the current environment, which places a high priority on internationalization and its effects on various aspects of excellence—notably in terms of research—in higher education.

Yet, despite the widespread and largely unchallenged notion that mobility yields highly positive results—including personal development, professional expertise and language skills for mobile students and staff, and academically-enhancing diversity for receiving institutions—a great deal is still to be learned about the specific outcomes of mobility. When it comes to qualitative results, this is perhaps not so surprising. Making sense of both human and organizational development in general is highly complex, and arguably more so when it comes to analyzing the effects of international and intercultural experiences

in the areas of teaching, learning, and professional engagement. However, it is equally if not more fascinating to note that much remains unclear about the *quantitative* dimensions of mobility. Despite ongoing efforts (and some real improvements in recent years) to get a firm handle on the numbers of individuals entering into, exiting from and circulating across borders within European higher education, a recent study has shown that many gaps remain in our understanding of mobility “by the numbers”. How can this be, and why does it matter?

This paper aims to provide a brief overview of an extensive report focused on the quantitative picture of mobility in European higher education, with the goal of addressing some of these fundamental questions. The report that serves as the backbone of this discussion was recently completed by Ulrich Teichler, Irina Ferencz and Bernd Wächter for the European Commission (EC), in the context of an EC-commissioned project coordinated by the Academic Cooperation Association. *Mapping Mobility in European Higher Education*² (Teichler, Ferencz, & Wächter, 2011) is the culminating product of an exhaustive effort to clarify what the data currently available on academic mobility in Europe can and cannot tell us. It is impossible to do full justice here to the many layers of analysis included in this lengthy and detailed report. The objective of this paper, however, is to highlight four fundamental issues that emerge from this research which relate to the ongoing challenges to make quantitative sense of European student and staff mobility. These challenges center on the need for widespread agreement on:

- a more detailed and comprehensive conceptual understanding of international mobility, rooted in the notion of “mobilities”;
- key terminology and definitions relating to mobile students and staff;
- consistent methodologies for tracking and reporting mobility data;
- the provision of additional and in some cases more detailed data in several areas, which would significantly enhance the comprehensiveness (and usefulness) of the information provided.

Of course, numbers never tell the full story, and should not be expected to do so in isolation from other relevant considerations. But, when it comes to mobility, such data do have a valuable role to play when it comes to providing a meaningful perspective on the current scope of the phenomenon, and contributing to a baseline of information from which to craft a thoughtful set of objectives for the future. Already in the context of the Bologna Process, the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Ministers’ Communiqué (2009) spelled out a mobility goal such that, by 2020, “at least 20% of those graduating in the European Higher Education Area should have had a study or training period abroad” (p. 4). Meanwhile, the European Union (EU) is due to release its own benchmark for learning mobility in 2011. Establishing firm targets for mobility is admirable, but such efforts do not seem wholly sensible when the starting points across Europe remain (in many cases) vague and highly uneven, both in terms of definitions and performance. Crafting sound, evidence-based policy clearly requires good data. What Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, (2011) help us to understand is that, while headed in the right direction, the current body of data on this topic is in many ways insufficient to guide this kind of thoughtful policymaking.

² The report will be referred to throughout this paper either by its full title or a shortened version, *Mapping Mobility*.

SO MANY DATA...

The *Mapping Mobility in European Higher Education* report was commissioned by the Directorate-General for Education and Culture (DG EAC) of the European Commission. Work began in October 2009 and was spearheaded by the Brussels-based Academic Cooperation Association, in close collaboration with Ulrich Teichler of INCHER at the University of Kassel. It also involved significant contributions by CampusFrance, DAAD and HIS (a German social science research institute), as well as a number of researchers connected to Professor Teichler. In all, a total of 12 individuals contributed to the final report, which was delivered to the European Commission in the first half of 2011.

In its final two-volume, 500-page plus form, *Mapping Mobility* arguably represents the most comprehensive and up-to-date analysis of quantitative information relevant to mobility in European higher education. This effort attends to two main issues. First, using data from three main sources (UNESCO, OECD, and EUROSTAT) – which together are referred to as the UOE data sets – the report provides a highly detailed picture of mobility (mostly as this relates to students, although not exclusively) into and out of what is termed the “Europe 32” countries, over the period 1998/99 - 2006/07. This group of countries consists of the 27 Member States of the European Union; the 4 countries comprising the European Free Trade Association, or EFTA (Switzerland, Norway, Lichtenstein and Iceland); and Turkey. The specific mobility modes examined include incoming and outgoing degree mobility, incoming and outgoing temporary mobility specifically in the context of ERASMUS, and staff mobility. The report also provides in-depth case studies on 11 of the countries covered in the study, specifically: Austria, Belgium – the Flemish community, Cyprus, Estonia, France, Germany, Italy, Romania, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom. In addition, the report provides a brief review of the literature addressing obstacles and incentives for mobility, as well as an examination of national mobility policies. The editors also outline a set of recommendations for raising the numbers of individuals participating in mobility in European higher education.

The second main aim of the report is to examine “issues around the availability, quality, and depth of information and data on student and staff mobility, i.e. it assesses the adequacy or otherwise of the international data collection in the field of student and staff mobility” (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, 2011, p. 4). Here, too, a set of recommendations is provided, this time with regard to realizing improvements in the ongoing work related to data collection.

The results of this total effort are indeed impressive. Through the authors’ and editors’ painstaking efforts, readers are walked in a most coherent and detailed fashion through a veritable ocean of statistics. Volume 1 of the two-volume report addresses the overview picture and main trends, and includes over 40 statistical tables covering all aspects of the quantitative landscape at a (mostly) Europe 32-wide level. In addition, the volume’s annexes provide a country-specific statistical snapshot for each of the Europe 32 countries, with regard to the numbers and characteristics of foreign students present, and the numbers and characteristics of each country’s study abroad population. For 24 of the Europe 32 countries, an additional annex presents the picture with regard to the numbers of “foreign students versus incoming (mobile) students”. Where possible, these numbers are duly related to the trends they can illuminate. Some important findings include the fact that:

- “average mobility levels in the Europe 32 region are high in a global comparison and have risen considerably in the past decade” (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, eds., 2011, p. 4);
- ERASMUS numbers have “more than doubled” in the period 1998/99 to 2008/09, but still account for a tiny percentage, on average, of the total Europe 32 enrollment in higher education (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, eds., 2011, p. 5)
- Europe-wide averages provide very little insight into the extensive range of difference in incoming and outgoing numbers and mobility characteristics demonstrated across the individual Europe 32 countries.

SO LITTLE CLARITY...

Despite an enormous quantity of data at their fingertips and a great deal of information to share, the editors of *Mapping Mobility in European Higher Education* pepper much of their analysis with careful caveats about the extent to which hard conclusions can be drawn from the UOE data with which they have to work; this, despite the fact that the UOE collection is considered the “only source of internationally comparable data on student mobility” (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, eds., 2011, p. 30). The challenges faced in this area may be usefully distilled down to four central issues:

- The inherently complex nature of the phenomenon of international academic mobility, particularly when examined comparatively across a large number of very different national contexts;
- A lack of common terminology, again in the context of international data collection efforts involving very distinct national actors;
- Differences with regard to the actual process of collecting data in various national contexts, in addition to inconsistencies over time in approaches to this work and quality concerns in this area;
- Even the “cleanest” most complete data collected in the context of established current practice may not be enough to tell us everything we may want to know about international academic mobility.

An examination of each of these concerns provides an opportunity to explore some of the reasons behind why the large quantities of data currently available still leave us with many unanswered questions.

CONCEPTUAL COMPLEXITY

A primary consideration when addressing shortcomings of the data at our disposal is the fact that the quantitative aspects of mobility (and the tracking exercises associated with it) may be consistently drawing from an oversimplified conceptual understanding of mobility. This shortcoming may be understandable given that, on the face of it, what could really be so difficult about counting students who move internationally for study? The *Mapping Mobility* study, however, artfully demonstrates the range of scenarios that need to be kept in mind when endeavoring to map out the full picture of mobility activity

that occurs in the European context. “Mobility” is much more appropriately understood as “mobilities”, when all aspects of the phenomenon are appropriately taken into account. A precise conceptual understanding of mobilities must place movement across borders for the purpose of study at the heart of the analysis, but, as Figure 1 demonstrates, the “mobility situation” from the perspective of even a single country encompasses a whole series of considerations including issues of mobility “direction” (inwards versus outwards), nationality, country of current and/or prior residence, and country of current and/or prior study/qualification. Furthermore, there are necessary distinctions to be made for students between temporary mobility and degree mobility, while for staff there may also be short and longer-term aspects of mobility to be considered, as well as distinctions between mobility currently undertaken and retroactive analyses of mobility across full careers.

DEFINITIONAL DEMANDS

Identifying and describing the various types of mobility serves to illustrate how multifaceted the umbrella concept of “mobility” really is, and provides a critically important entrée into the conversation about the unique characteristics of each mobility mode. Understanding these differences, tracking data for each type of mobility, and understanding what these statistics may mean in any one country—let alone across all of the Europe 32 countries examined in the Mapping Mobility project—represents an enormous challenge under the best of circumstances. This is made even more difficult in light of the fact that there are many different terms used to describe the various actors and aspects of mobility in European higher education, as well as differing definitions for many shared terms. The report provides one particularly notable example in this vein, in regard to the way that Sweden defines the term “foreign student”. More commonly, the concept of foreign student is defined by virtue of the nationality of the student; in Sweden, however, the operative concept is that of immigration, whereby “students ‘with a foreign background’, i.e. students who were born outside of Sweden from non-Swedish parents or students that were born in Sweden from non-Swedish-born parents” (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, eds., 2011, p.148) are considered to be foreign students.

A key contribution of the *Mapping Mobility* report is the clear message it provides with respect to the need for stakeholders to use precise terminology in order to facilitate meaningful communication on this complex subject. To this end, the study’s authors purposefully introduce a glossary of terms meant to rationalize the way key stakeholders converse about the mobilities examined in the report. Without this kind of structured approach to the most basic terminology—including (but in no way limited to) such terms as incoming students, outgoing students, foreign students, home students, study abroad students, national students, country of origin, country of permanent or prior residence, diploma mobility, and credit mobility—it may prove impossible to effectively compare data, understand trends or make relevant policy decisions, particularly at a European level.

METHODOLOGICAL MATTERS

In addition to the complex conceptual framework required to deal comprehensively with the multifaceted nature of academic mobility(ies) in Europe, and the lack of consistent terminology for the phenomenon, the effort to make sense of existing quantitative mobility data faces difficulties on a third front, this time having to do with methodologies for data collection and reporting. Of fundamental concern here is the fact that, although the UOE provides guidance meant to facilitate the collection of internationally comparable data, data quality and completeness are not consistent across the Europe 32 countries.

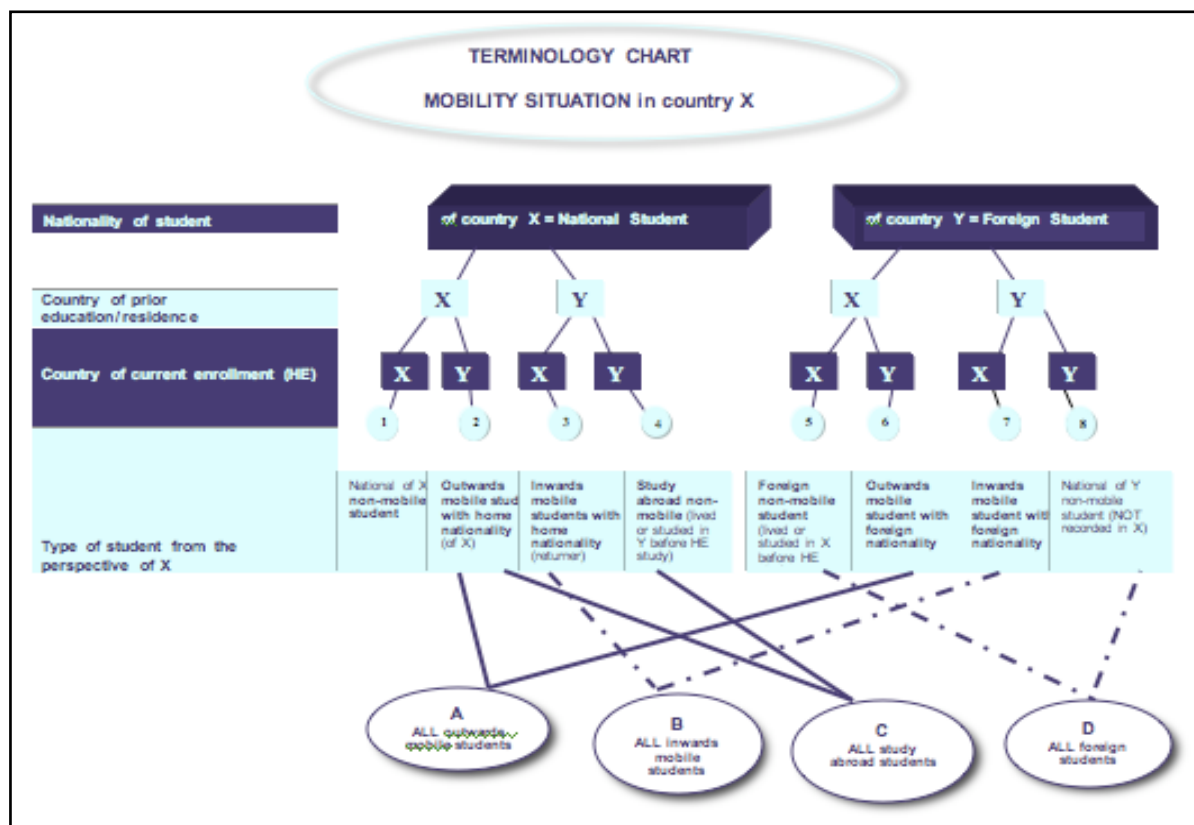


FIGURE 1. TERMINOLOGY CHART. MOBILITY SITUATION IN COUNTRY X. (TEICHLER, FERENCZ & WÄCHTER, 2011)

Here, the report provides a clear example having to do with the delivery of data on foreign nationality versus ‘genuine mobility’. Historically, the UOE had used foreign nationality as a “proxy of international mobility” (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, eds., 2011, p. 30). However, beginning roughly ten years ago, that tendency was reversed. Changes brought about by globalization more broadly—and for Europe specifically the advent of the Single European Act, which provided the legislative basis for the free movement of people in Europe beginning in the 1980s—convinced EURODATA, UNESCO, and OECD of the need to address mobility differently. With UOE encouragement, therefore, as of 2002/03 nine of the Europe 32 countries began to deliver both foreign nationality and “statistics on ‘truly mobile’ students” (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, 2011, p. 30)—as defined by country of prior education and country of prior/permanent residence. However, as of 2006/07 (the latest figures included in Mapping Mobility), eight countries still had not provided the data on country of prior education and country of prior/permanent residence. The improvement in the number of countries reporting on ‘genuine mobility’ is significant and laudable, however there are still “severe limitations” presented by the missing data (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, eds., 2011, p. 31). On the one hand, the lack of information obviously

complicates the possibilities of accurately comparing data on incoming students across the Europe 32 countries. The report also rightly points out, however, that because much understanding of trends in outward mobility is made possible by effective recordkeeping of incoming students by the host country, failure to comply with requests for these kinds of data can be doubly troublesome for mobility analysts.

Mapping Mobility also points out that some countries do not strictly adhere to the UOE guidelines calling for data related to incoming students involved exclusively in diploma mobility. Instead, “a number of countries disregard UOE regulations and report all or some incoming credit mobile students (temporary mobility), making the UOE dataset unclean” (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, 2011, p. 7).

The imperfections and inconsistencies in the current data sets unearthed by the study’s main authors lead them to assert that “the data presented on student mobility might be even up to one quarter higher (or more) or one-fourth lower (or more) than the real mobility flows.” (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, 2011, p. 162).

CONTENT CONCERNS

Finally, even in a context where conceptually clarity might reign, all definitions were commonly understood, and no mistakes in data collection or reporting were made, gaps would still be apparent in the information at hand on academic mobility. This comes as a result of real limitations in terms of what is currently tracked by the UOE data sets, on the one hand, and simply what is provided (or not) by the national data collection agencies that feed information into the UOE data set.

The *Mapping Mobility* study highlights several important areas where relevant analysis is simply not possible based on the fact that the corresponding information is not requested by UOE. One of the most striking examples cited by the study is the lamentable lack of differentiated information available in the current UOE data on mobility for the ISCED³ 1997 level 5A, which encompasses bachelor’s and master’s levels of higher education. The authors note unequivocally that, “As a result, the impact of the most comprehensive European structural reform in decades – the introduction of the Bologna Process degree architecture – cannot be currently assessed” (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, 2011, p. 7). Other concerns relate to the little (and inconsistent) tracking of doctoral figures, along with the dearth of information about mobility involving students enrolled less than one year. Clearly, it would be in many stakeholders’ interest to gather information on these kinds of indicators.

More generally, the study provides a helpful overview by country (for 24 of the Europe 32 countries) of missing information specific to incoming students, in seven key areas:

³ International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). For more information:
http://www.unesco.org/education/information/nfsunesco/doc/iscsed_1997.htm

- ISCED level missing/not identifiable (6 countries);
- no classification of country of origin (6 countries); no classification by study subjects (7 countries);
- no classification by gender (1 country);
- over 10% unclassified mobile students (5 countries);
- differing treatment of certain subgroups (5 countries);
- no mobile graduate data (10 countries⁴).

Meanwhile, academic staff mobility represents literally a “black hole” of information in the available data. Here, the study artfully explores the complexity of that particular aspect of the mobility phenomenon—beginning with the most fundamental of questions, such as how to define “academic staff”, what constitutes staff mobility, and what might be “reference points of prior location” for such individuals (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, 2011, p. 138).

WHAT CAN BE DONE...AND WHY DOES THIS MATTER?

Enhancing the accuracy and usefulness of the mobility data collected by UNESCO, OECD, and EURODATA will not occur overnight, but the lead authors of the Mapping Mobility study put forward a thoughtful mix of longer and shorter-term recommendations that provide a blueprint for moving the process forward in important ways. Again, it is impossible here to cover all of the suggestions provided, but some of the most salient in terms of the issues raised with in regard to student mobility include:

- urging “a complete transition to the collection of data on mobility, in addition to data on nationality” (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, 2011, p. 204);
- making a distinction in the data collection and reporting by cycle (i.e., master’s versus bachelor’s)
- committing to defining genuine mobility as a function of “education/residence prior to the current stage of education” (Teichler, Ferencz & Wächter, 2011, p. 205);
- introducing separate and consistent reporting of credit and degree mobility; and
- launching a mechanism to track the event of mobility in the course of study.

To attend to staff mobility concerns, the suggestions are quite ambitious, and include the idea of addressing four main themes of academic staff mobility (current mobility, mobility of doctoral candidates, short stays abroad, and mobility throughout the career). Each of these themes would require unique approaches to data gathering, unique data collection activities and systems, and specialized data sets for thematic analysis.

Given the high priority placed on student mobility in the context of European Union policies for economic and social development, there seems to be momentum for shoring up data deficiencies. Indeed, a revision of the ISCED classifications may provide a pathway for one of the key recommendations made

⁴ Three additional countries were singled out as more missing information “for particular ISCED levels”

by Mapping Mobility to be realized, in terms of being able to separate mobility numbers for bachelor's and master's level students. Numbers are unquestionably 'important' by virtue of their political value. For better or worse, people—policymakers, politicians, the general public, decision makers in our institutions—respond to 'hard' numbers, seeming to take comfort in their 'tangibility'.

Some may worry about potentially negative effects of relying too heavily on quantitative information in decision-making with regard to mobility policies and objectives. It is hard to argue against the notion, however, that numbers—of sufficient accuracy and relevance—do have a key role to play in providing a much-needed overview of the scope of this activity, which truly sits at the heart of internationalization for many national higher education systems in Europe and the institutions that comprise them. These kinds of data can be a critically important element, therefore, in ongoing efforts to improve policy and practice, with real benefits to stakeholders. And therein lies the very fundamental notion of the importance of evidence-based decision-making. Without accurate, relevant data, our ability to articulate desirable objectives and calculate the resources needed to work toward those objectives is arguably greatly compromised. Knowing where we stand in the present moment, and how the present compares to the past, can provide much needed-insight into plausible future directions.

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ERASMUS MOBILITY STUDENTS AND CONCEPTIONS OF NATIONAL, REGIONAL AND GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP IDENTITY

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ABSTRACT

This article presents preliminary, selected findings from a larger study of students' experiences in international education. This paper focus on those findings that are related to student understanding of citizenship identity during the mobility experience. Specifically, it draws on interviews and surveys collected in Germany from 387 students participating in the European Union's Erasmus Mobility Programme. The data highlight notable differences in students' citizenship identification along four general lines—national, European, global and 'other'—and their explanations for choosing these affiliations. These early findings raise questions that are currently being explored in the ongoing activities of this longer-term research project.

It is by now well documented that during university study, students experience significant intellectual and personal development (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). For those who also engage in international education during this period, even more significant developmental outcomes have been reported (Deardorf, 2006; Hammer, Bennett et al., 2003; Teichler, 1996). In the literature detailing these various benefits, however, much less has so far documented ways that students develop their sense of personal and professional identity during study abroad (Dolby, 2004; Knight, in press; Osler, 1998). While the

⁵ I wish to acknowledge the support of a Fulbright Senior Research Fellowship in 2010-2011 and the generosity of Professor Juergen Schriewer and his colleagues at the Centre for Comparative Education and the Abteilung Internationales (ORBIS) at the Humboldt Universität zu Berlin. My gratitude also goes to Tobias Ward for his help with data analysis.

literature on national identity (Nussbaum, 1996; Anderson, 1983), European citizenship (Bellamy, 2000; Carter, 2001; Eder & Giesen, 2001; Habermas 1993) and global citizenship (Brodin, 2010; Davies, 2006; Schattle, 2008; Tarrant, 2010) is expansive, much less remains known about how students who may be expected to feel a certain way about their identity because of having a study abroad experience in fact feel about it when they are asked.

In this paper I first present a short overview of the study and its rationale, then present and discuss some of the preliminary quantitative and qualitative survey and interview findings that detail students' conceptions of citizenship identification, and finally conclude with brief reflections on possible implications of these data, questions they raise for further study, and my plans for the next phases of the research.

DEFINITIONS

However, before launching into a discussion of notions as historically complex and contested in the literature as identity, identification, citizen and conception, I will clarify how I interpret these terms in my study. In both the interviews and the survey, the terms citizen and identity were used, and in my analysis the terms 'identification' and 'conceptions' are used. My interpretation of identity and identification comes from the work of Duchesne and Frogner (2008) who interpret identity as "the complex pattern of meanings and values related to the group whose borders are defined by the state's capacity to intervene" (p. 144). They describe identification as "the link between an individual and the other members of one of his/her many potential groups of reference... [being] in-depth attitudes as opposed to mere opinions" (pp. 144, 146). My use of the term 'citizen' is best articulated by Willem Maass, whose study (2007) of the development of European citizenship succinctly describes citizenship as "a homogeneous political status within the context of the state...to be a citizen is to be a member of a legally uniform (usually national) group of people, with attendant rights and duties (p. 2)."

Thus, for the sake of my study, I interpret a citizen to be a legal member of a politically defined state, identity to be the way citizens interpret their values within the citizen group to which they legally belong, and identification to mean how the individual citizen then meaningfully links him/herself to the other people with whom they have contact, either within their own nation or outside of it. Finally, I use the word 'conception' to mean 'understanding' or as D.D. Pratt defines it, "Specific meanings attached to phenomena which then mediate our response to situations involving those phenomena. We...use those abstract representations to delimit something from, and relate it to, other aspects of our world (p. 205)." That is, students interpret and make sense of their experience of studying abroad in a particular way, and their resulting idiosyncratic interpretation also influences how they understand other things related to the international experience, including how they feel about citizenship identity.

This article presents data and the initial findings of a study still in progress that is part of a larger research project looking at how university students understand international educational experience and what role it plays in their development of citizen identity. While there is much in the scholarly literature discussing complex notions of citizenship, identity of different kinds and international study, this research

investigated how one small sample of students participating in the Erasmus Mobility Programme⁶ in Germany reflected on their feelings of belonging to nation, being part of Europe, having a sense of global responsibility, or perhaps thinking about citizenship in an entirely different way.

The study was conducted in three phases: In the first phase, Erasmus student's survey responses to four close-ended choices about types of citizenship were analyzed (National, European, Global and 'Other'). In the second stage, students' written, open-ended explanations of their citizenship choices on the survey and in the interviews were analyzed. Students' general reasons for their choice of citizenship type were presented in the form of a list to make sure all possible conceptions were captured. And, in the third stage, a loose typology of general conceptions of citizenship was developed out of the analysis of the closed- and open-ended survey items and the interview data. Rather than seeking to present how identity develops during the Erasmus program or how program developers or students understand their identity after participation, this study sought to show how a specific group of Erasmus participants understands citizenship identity at one point in time during an international education experience.

CITIZENSHIP IDENTITY TO ATTRACT STUDENTS TO STUDY ABROAD?

Two particular types of citizenship that have frequently been articulated by program developers and policy makers during the last decade of dramatic increase in study abroad participation in the U.S. and in Europe raise important questions. These are "global citizenship" and "European citizenship". In the U.S., a common statement by institutions and third party providers is that study abroad will develop students into global citizens (Lutterman-Aguilar & Gingerich, 2002; Streitwieser & Light, 2010; Woolfe, 2009; Zemach-Bersin, 2009). In Europe, the idea that Erasmus should, among a host of other benefits, develop in participants a sense of European citizenship identity has also been important for Bologna program policy makers (European Commission, 2008; Sigalas, 2010; Teichler & Maiworm, 1997).

In his 2009 discussion of "Global Citizenship and Study Abroad: A European Comparative Perspective" (2009), Hans de Wit argued, "Europeans have felt themselves to be global citizens to a greater degree than their American equivalents. Only in recent years has there been a drive to create a European citizenship" (291). Given that both terms—global citizenship and European identity—are used to attract students to study abroad even while they remain contested constructs, it is imperative to first simply understand how students themselves as the consumers of education abroad think about these concepts. That is, while it may not directly be a misconception that study abroad fosters global citizenship or that mobility within Europe creates a feeling of European citizenship identity, both assumptions should at the very least be empirically challenged. Further, their use should be based on an articulated understanding of their meaning and then discussed with students if, in fact, they are felt to be important experiential outcomes. The problem is these notions are currently being used as promises to attract students to study abroad when more deliberately invoking them might lead to more responsible advertising, development and evaluation of programs and their intended outcomes.

In Europe, few studies have so far been able to demonstrate empirically whether European citizenship identity develops during Erasmus as its planners had hoped it would when the program began in 1987 (Council of Ministers, 1987; Green paper, 2009; Sigalas, 2009; 2010). However, as Everson and

⁶ European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students

Preuss (1995) argue, it is the responsibility of research to “seek honestly to identify” these varying conceptions of citizenship if it is to accurately assess how they impact the development of allegiance to Union citizenship (Ibid, p. 48).

THE STUDY

This paper shares data on the issue of citizenship identity drawn from a larger funded study at Northwestern University, the Student Conceptions of International Experience Study (SCIE)⁷, which for the past three years, the SCIE study has been engaged in addressing and empirically documenting students’ involvement in various types of study abroad programs at Northwestern and in other institutions throughout the United States. In 2010 the author secured a Fulbright grant to replicate the interview and survey study on a sample of European students also engaging in study abroad. In Europe, 45 semester and yearlong Erasmus students were interviewed⁸ and 342 students completed the survey.⁹ The sample was made up of Europeans from 29 countries and 141 different higher education institutions¹⁰ who were studying at the Humboldt Universitaet or the Freie Universitaet in Berlin for a semester or a full year, and Germans from those same two institutions who had just finished studying in one of 18 different European countries for the same period of time.

German students were interviewed and surveyed online (using SurveyMonkey) shortly after their return from abroad. Non-German students were interviewed and surveyed during their Erasmus experience. All discussions were digitally audio-recorded and lasted between 30 and 90 minutes. At the end of the lengthy interview and 28 question survey, students were presented with the four broad categories of citizen identification—National, European, Global or ‘Other—and asked which one they identified with first, and to explain why.

The research method used in the study was influenced by the Theory of Variation (Marton & Booth, 1997) and Phenomenography, which is “the empirical study of the limited number of qualitatively different ways in which we experience, conceptualize, understand, perceive, [or] apprehend various phenomena (Marton 1994, p. 4424).” This theory holds that people understand and approach learning differently, that these different understandings or “conceptions” can be empirically documented, sometimes along a hierarchy of complexity of understanding among different learners, and that understanding this variation gives us the knowledge and tools to help learners over time move from less to more complex conceptions (Marton & Booth, 1997; Micari, Light, Calkins and Streitwieser, 2007). The data was analyzed by two researchers, both working independently with the raw survey and interview data and then member checking one another’s analysis for discussion and agreement at successive stages

⁷ The author also acknowledges the generous funding from Northwestern University’s Buffett Center for International and Comparative Studies and Northwestern’s Searle Center for Teaching Excellence.

⁸ Interviewed students came from Austria, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, England, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey.

⁹ Surveyed students came from Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, *Croatia, Czech Republic, Denmark, England, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, *Kazakhstan, Latvia, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, *Russia, *Scotland, *Serbia, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey. Note that countries marked with an asterix do not have Erasmus ‘National Agencies.’

¹⁰ Please contact the author for a list of the individual institutions since they are too many to include here.

(Patton, 2002). The development of the identity categories resulted from multiple readings of the data, crafting and refining draft categories supported with selected student statements, and finally constructing a table of general conceptual variation on the four notions of citizenship (Akerlind 2005).

THE ERASMUS PROGRAMME AND CITIZENSHIP IDENTITY IN EUROPE

The Erasmus program was established in 1987 and is part of the wider Bologna initiative to establish a higher education area within Europe. Erasmus allows Europeans to spend 3-12 months studying or engaging in an internship elsewhere throughout European. Currently, there are 31 participating countries, over two thousand higher education institutions, and over 1.5 million students who by now who have been engaged in Erasmus exchange opportunities (Kritz, 2006). Different observers have described the program as “the single most successful component of EU policy” (Altbach & Teichler, 2001, p. 10; Teichler, 2010), “a social and cultural phenomenon” in its own right (British Council, 2009), and a Litmus test for Bologna’s ultimate success (Wuttig, 2009).

One of Erasmus’ primary goals from the beginning has been for participants to develop competencies and tangible links that not only strengthen the Union and make it a more attractive place to study and work but also make them feel like they are an integral part of shaping Europe in the future (DeWit, 2009; Everson & Preuss, 1995; Green Paper, 2009; Kritz, 2006; Wuttig, 2009). As Sigalas (2010) has noted, “it is clear that international student mobility and direct contact were meant to create a European identity” (p. 242).

FINDINGS¹¹

ERASMUS CITIZENSHIP IDENTIFICATION: ALONG NATIONAL, REGIONAL, GLOBAL, AND ‘OTHER’ LINES

Of the 343 survey respondents, Figure 1 below indicates that Erasmus students were nearly equally split between choosing their national citizenship identification first and choosing a European citizenship identity first, 34% for the former and 39% for the latter, respectively. Another 15% selected global citizenship as their first identification, while the remaining 12% preferred the ‘Other’ option.

¹¹ These findings are preliminary and meant to suggest potentially interesting trends and questions that can be further explores in subsequent stages of this research undertaking. The graphs represent simple frequency counts that were converted into percentages rather than sophisticated statistical calculations, which will be made with subsequent data.

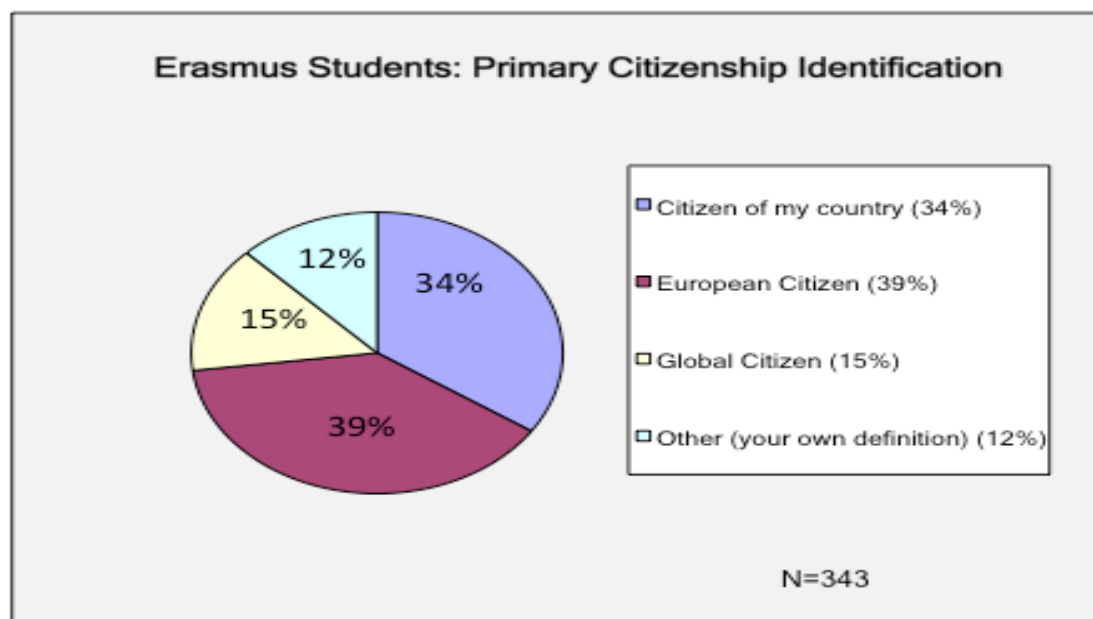


FIGURE 1 - ERASMUS STUDENTS: PRIMARY CITIZENSHIP IDENTIFICATION

When looking at this same breakdown with students from countries where there were enough respondents to justify frequency tabulation, the differences become more interesting. Figure 2, below, indicates the per-country breakdown.

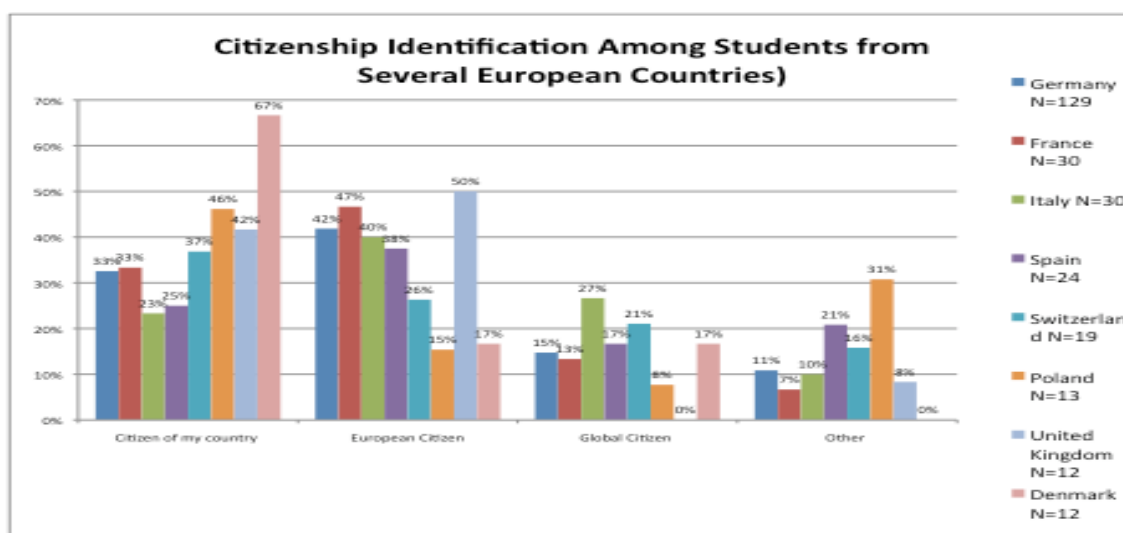


FIGURE 2 - STUDENTS FROM SEVERAL EUROPEAN COUNTRIES: PRIMARY CITIZENSHIP IDENTIFICATION

Danish students rate national citizenship as their primary identity much more readily than do students from the other countries, particularly against, for example, Italian students. However, Italian students rate global citizenship identification higher than any of the other countries, while students from the United Kingdom appear to ignore it altogether. But, English students rate European citizenship identification highest, while Polish students rate it the lowest, followed by Danish students.

Based on a very general reading of current political trends, the high rating by Danish students on national citizenship identification may be a reflection of recent politics in that country or simply an expression of proud citizens of a small country promoting their country first—even though Swiss students do not provide the same numbers and also come from a small country. On the other hand, the high European identification by students from the UK speaks against the belief that the English are, according to some studies, hesitant to identify as Europeans (Sigalas, 2010). One explanation might be that European citizenship identification is high because they feel they are already comfortable enough with their nation's status to be confident supporting Europe first.

Discussion

These basic quantitative indications of the Erasmus student sample's first citizenship identifications are interesting but more instructive is how these students actually articulated and explained their citizenship identification choices when they were able to provide written detail in the survey items and express themselves in interviews. Table 1, below, provides a general overview of descriptive terms that capture the variety of explanations students gave for their citizenship identification. These are then followed by a discussion of each type and, finally, a brief analysis of the differences discovered among students from countries with different historical-political, economic and geographic profiles.

CITIZENSHIP IDENTIFICATION	REASON FOR THE CHOICE OF CITIZENSHIP IDENTIFICATION
National	Default Identification Pride Identification Protection Identification
European	Shared Identification Belonging Identification Dissociative Identification
Global	Borderless Identification Mindset Identification Predetermined Identification Wide Open Identification
"Other"	Regional or City Identification

TABLE 1: CITIZENSHIP IDENTIFICATION AND REASONS

NATIONAL CITIZENSHIP IDENTIFICATION

Students who articulated a national citizenship identification first did so along three general lines, which can be described as 1) Default identification, 2) Pride identification, and 3) Protection identification.

Students with a Protection Identification thought about their identity in a logical way: family ties, cultural and geographic familiarity, and language made allegiance to their own country first their only logical reaction to being asked about their citizenship identification. Students in this category also defaulted to nation because they expressed feeling uncomfortable when confronted with issues of

integration or the expectation that they be more accommodating to outsiders unfamiliar with their culture, language and setting. Finally, students in this group defaulted to national citizenship out of a desire to conform to the expectations and beliefs they felt others had of them because of where they came from or what accent they had. Students who held a Pride Identification were attracted to national identification first because they felt time abroad had made them better, more informed citizens of their own country. These students expressed an eagerness to return home and work to further improve their country. They also felt particular comfort and kinship with their fellow nationals when they were abroad, which led them to the conclusion that where they really belong is to their country. Finally, students holding a Protection Identification argued that preserving their national identity was important but being jeopardized by globalization and an EU bureaucracy they felt was too abstract and out of touch with local issues and concerns. As one German student¹² explained, "There is no real European identity since Europe only exists at Brussels and Strasbourg. It is far away and I perceive it as a bureaucratic monster." Some students also expressed the need to champion their national identity so they could effectively save their country from internal political rifts tearing it apart. A student from Belgium lamented the tensions in her country between two historically antagonistic groups: "The Belgian politics make a Belgian identity almost problematic. In this way I tend to stress my 'belgianness' in order to break with the dualistic thinking (Vlaams- Waals) that rules nowadays in my country."

EUROPEAN CITIZENSHIP IDENTIFICATION

Students who expressed a European citizenship identification first also fell into three broad categories, which I have described as 1) Shared Identification, 2) Belonging Identification, and 3) Dissociative Identification.

Students who held a Shared Identification are likely those Erasmus policy makers most hope to graduate from their program: students who feel a bond with their fellow Europeans, seek common ground on issues and value diversity. Many respondents in this category spoke with pride about being part of the so-called 'Erasmus Generation' representing a new and youthful spirit engaged in making Europe the best place to live and work. Students in the next category who held a Belonging Identification were similar to the first group in many ways, except that they went beyond merely sharing an interest in Europe to striving to actively make the EU succeed. These students were not only grateful for the administrative benefits they feel European citizenship bestows upon them, but proud of Europe as the place where they see a bright future for themselves to follow their dreams and play a leading role. As one enthusiastic young Frenchman exclaimed, "We, young people, students, open minded people, are able to go on with Europa. We can follow the dream that we can believe in Europa. Now I'm European citizen, I'm speaking three languages and most of my friends are European...I'm proud of Europa. We have to go on with it."

Finally, many of these students also felt that national identification was too constricting for them, that all their travels around Europe already made returning home too late, and that a wider European identity simply offered them more. Students who fell into the third category, Dissociative Identification, rejected their national identification out of shame for being associated with its history and stereotypes. For these students, discomfort with their own country, either for historical reasons as was the case with

¹² All statements are original and have only been slightly corrected for grammar or spelling where necessary.

some German respondents or for political or economic reasons as with some Eastern and Southern European respondents, left them preferring the anonymity of a European identity to one that associates them with an identity they would rather avoid. Everson and Preuss (1995) explain this citizenship type as one where “citizenship is devaluated in that it serves as the negative basis of comparison for some other valued social role (p. 54).” A German student respondent explained this feeling accurately: “I have still come across lots of stereotypes regarding German people, that - in my opinion - can still be traced back to Nazi Germany. Therefore I sometimes hesitated to tell people where I am from and almost wished to be able to tell them something different. This is why, I would rather like to call myself a ‘European Citizen.’”

GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP IDENTIFICATION

Students who indicated that global citizenship was their primary identity can be grouped into the following four general descriptive categories: 1) Borderless Identification, 2) Mindset Identification, 3) Predetermined Identification, and 4) Wide Open Identification.

Students with a Borderless Identification rejected notions of nationality and territorial borders altogether, arguing that they are arbitrary, politically imposed strictures that represent labels people can choose to live above. Some of these students, however, also admitted with barely concealed contempt that living globally and traveling freely without regard to political borders is only possible for a privileged and educated minority of the world’s population. Students with a Mindset Identification felt that their view of all humans as equal with shared rights and obligations—the very definition of cosmopolitanism—defined their sense of identity and made it possible for them to live anywhere in the world, regardless of culture or geography. Some of these students also explained that their mixed family backgrounds made them a hybrid of many cultures and gave them a liberating sense of rootlessness. Many students in this category cited the adage, “home is where the heart is” to explain their philosophy. Above all, these students expressed a desire to experiment with life elsewhere, far beyond only the Western culture they felt they already knew.

Students, on the other hand, with a Predetermined Identification were somewhat similar to students who chose national identification first for default reasons, but argued that they inherited a predetermined global identification from their culturally mixed parents and extensive childhood experience abroad. While these students did not necessarily fully embrace the status of global citizen, they felt it best captured who they were in terms of their personal backgrounds. Students in the fourth category, Wide open Identification, felt not only that national citizenship was too limiting for them but also that Europe itself was too small for their more broadly focused horizons. These students also felt uncomfortable with a perceived nationalism in some of their country’s politics or an exclusionary attitude against non-Europeans trying to integrate into Europe. Finally, students in this category argued that that amount of traveling they had done and the wide breadth of friendships they had with others around the world led them to transcend national and European identity and adopt a way of living and seeing the world that they could only describe as global. As one Danish student explained it,

“When I think about my future and where I should make my master, I don't think that it should necessarily be in Europe, and I am considering both India, Tanzania, Brazil and Argentine. I think that the

constructions of nations is very limiting and I would like to see a world where people can migrate freely. That is why I think of myself mostly as a Global Citizen.”

‘OTHER’ CONCEPTIONS OF CITIZENSHIP

Based on an examination of the written comments provided by students who selected the “Other” option for citizenship identification, it becomes clear that rather than expressing a completely new notion of citizenship identity they were merely unhappy with the broad options offered. Some students argued that their identity was not at the level of nation, continent or globe, but rather began lower down at the level of city or region. These I have termed Regional or City Identification. Other students who rejected the citizenship labels clearly felt more comfortable articulating a conception in their own words but then ended up a fitting into one of the choices already offered anyway. Many of the students who chose ‘Other’ also did so because they felt they represented several types and therefore preferred not to be labeled as only one kind. As one student from Germany explained,

“I have never consciously felt a sort of national identity and it is a charming idea calling oneself a global citizen, but on the other hand I think calling oneself a global citizen neglects the differences that do exist between the people in the world in terms of privileges....I cannot relate to any of the categories named above.”

Finally, some of these students also said that their identity depended on where they were at any given time, so their identification label was fluid and changeable. One Dutch student interviewed explained how that worked: “I am From Amsterdam. I’m always confronted by being Dutch first. But I’m also European, especially Western European, so that’s second....Many Erasmus students feel like the EU is their ‘second country’. So, maybe I’m Dutch first, an EU citizen second, and a global citizen third. People drift more nowadays.”

ERASMUS CITIZENSHIP IDENTIFICATION ALONG HISTORICAL, ECONOMIC AND GEOGRAPHIC LINES

The next step in the analysis of the quantitative data was to look at the close-ended primary citizenship response choices in terms of what differences there might be among the respondents from the 29 different countries along very general historical-political, economic, and geographic-regional lines. Although aware of the pitfalls of trying to draw meaningful analysis along these lines without being able to account for the many complex variables that could skew the data, I nevertheless wanted to see if any interesting differences emerged that might suggest further study.

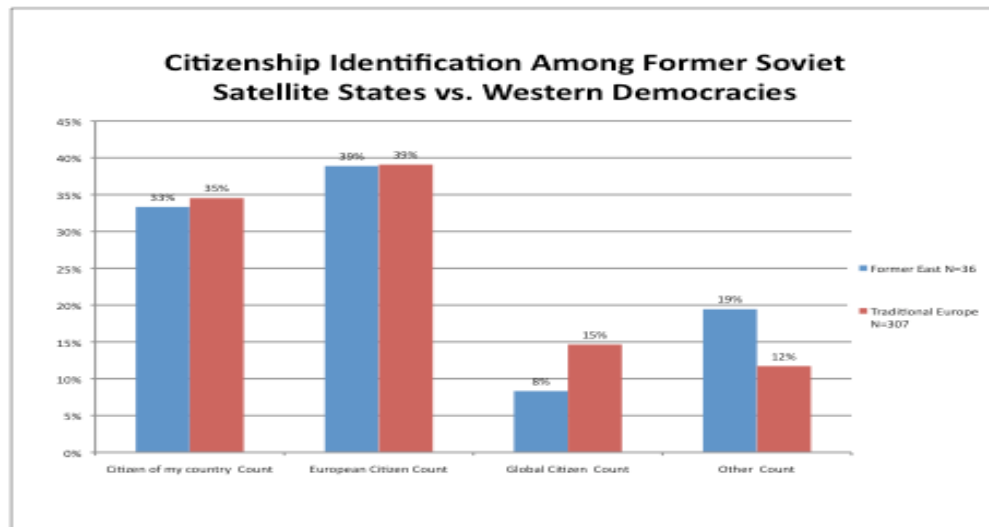


FIGURE 3 - FORMER SOVIET SATELLITE STATES VS. WESTERN DEMOCRACIES: PRIMARY CITIZENSHIP

To approach the data from a historical-political standpoint, the sample was first divided into two groups, former Soviet satellite states¹³ and Western European states¹⁴, as Figure 3, below, indicates.

While no major differences on economic lines were found between students in the former Soviet satellite states and the Western democracies in terms of the four citizenship types, a closer examination shows some interesting comparisons. For example, students from the traditional European countries appear to more readily accept a global citizenship identity than the former East/newer member state students do, 15% vs. 8%, respectively.

Perhaps this is because their comfort with Europe is stronger and thus they are more ready to embrace a wider conception of citizenship allegiance beyond their own continent, while students from the former East are still adjusting to being part of Western Europe and working to become fully accepted. In the choice of 'Other' there is an equal spread but in the opposite direction, with the Former East students more than the Western students rejecting the given citizenship choices and choosing to articulate their own understandings in the open-ended box that followed.

To approach the data from an economic standpoint, the sample of respondents was divided into economically 'shaken' states¹⁵ and 'solid' states.¹⁶ The breakdown is indicated in Figure 4.

¹³ The former Soviet satellite states in this analysis included Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia

¹⁴ The Western European states in this analysis included Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, The Netherlands, Northern Ireland, Norway, Portugal, Scotland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey and the United Kingdom

¹⁵ The economically 'shaken' states included Ireland, Greece, Portugal and Spain

¹⁶ The currently more economically 'solid' states included Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands, Northern Ireland, Norway, Scotland, Sweden, and the United Kingdom

Again, while there were no major differences on any of the citizenship types between either economic group, the data indicate a 6% higher European citizenship identification by students from the 'solid' states over the 'shaken' ones. It also shows students from the 'shaken' states appearing slightly more open to global citizenship than those from the more 'solid' states. To speculate briefly, it could be that students from the more secure European economies can 'afford' to be open to a wider citizenship identity while students from the 'shaken' states are currently less sure about how much they are still accepted and seen as belonging in a struggling Europe.

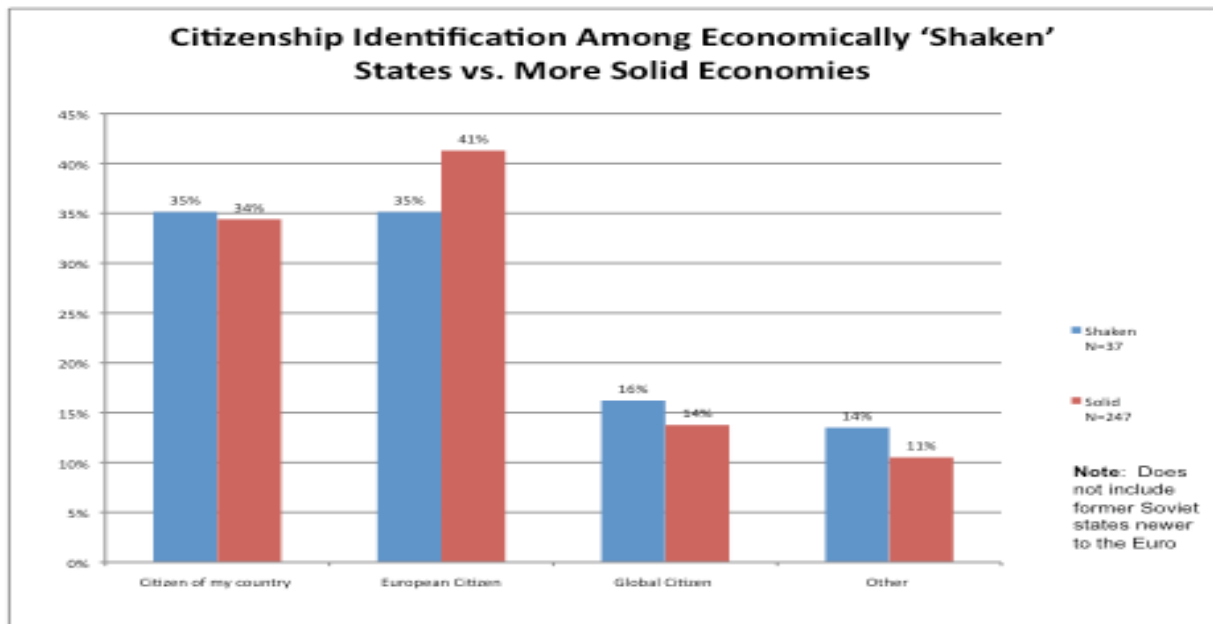


FIGURE 4 - ECONOMICALLY 'SHAKEN' VS. 'SOLID' ECONOMIES: PRIMARY CITIZENSHIP IDENTIFICATION.

NOTE: FORMER SOVIET SATELLITES NEWER TO THE EURO WERE EXCLUDED FROM THE ANALYSIS.

But, one could also argue that it would seem likely that the more 'solid' countries might particularly now reject the idea of 'brotherhood' with weaker economies, given that their financial problems are hurting the overall financial stability in Europe. Finally, students in the 'shaken' states appear slightly more open to global citizenship than do those in the 'solid' states, which, viewed cynically could signal that students from 'shaken' states are now seeking identification and shelter anywhere but with their own country.

Finally, an analysis by region, defined as The British Isles¹⁷, Central Europe (including Germany, with 129 students a much larger representation than any of the other countries),¹⁸ Eastern Europe,¹⁹ Scandinavia²⁰ and Southern Europe,²¹ showed perhaps the most interesting differences, as illustrated in Figure 5, below.²²

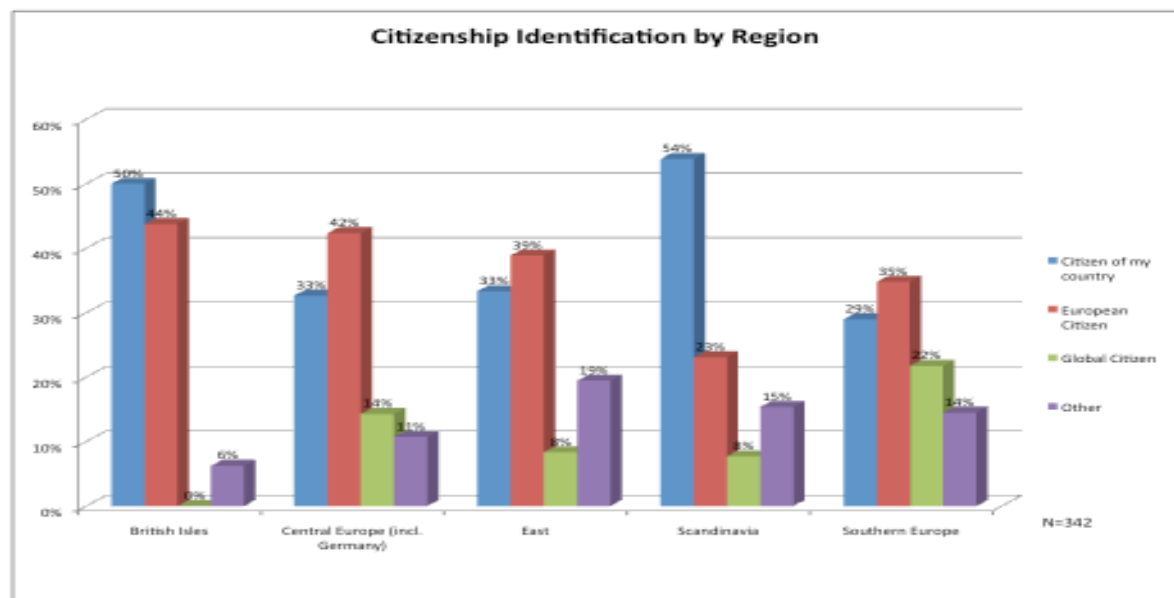


FIGURE 5 - REGIONAL DIFFERENCES: PRIMARY CITIZENSHIP IDENTIFICATION

Students from the British Isles and Scandinavia exhibit the highest national citizenship identification (50% and 54%, respectively) but the lowest global citizenship identification (0% and 8%, respectively), while students from the British Isles share a European citizenship identification that is equally high with Central Europe (44% and 42%, respectively) but for Scandinavian students it is much lower (23%). Scandinavian students as a group share the highest national identification and the lowest European identification. For Southern European students the reverse appears, although not as dramatically. The strong global citizenship identification among the Southern European countries is noteworthy, particularly when compared to the moderately low feeling of global citizenship among the countries from the former East and Scandinavia, which is also an interesting contrast.

CONCLUSION

As one would expect from a study into the complex issue of how citizenship identification is conceived of by university students during international educational experience, these data raise far more questions

¹⁷ England, Scotland Wales: N=16

¹⁸ Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Netherlands, Switzerland: N=36

¹⁹ Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Latvia, Poland, Serbia, Slovakia and Slovenia: N=67.

Please note that 'East' in this analysis indicates former Communist Block countries more than strictly geographic placement within Europe

²⁰ Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden: N=26

²¹ Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Turkey: N=169

²² Please note: There were insufficient responses to create a 'Baltics' category or any further regional differentiations beyond those represented here

than they answer. While citizenship identities are neither mutually exclusive nor inflexible, the data and analysis above makes three things clear: a) Students conceive of citizenship identity differently, b) they diverge in how they identify with various notions of citizenship, and c) they differ in their citizenship identification in terms of their country's historical-political profile, economic situation, and geographic position in Europe.

The survey data also show that over half the students in the sample (54%) have transcended their national identification and chosen to identify first as European Citizens or as Global Citizens. These observations are supported by a number of previous studies that had larger samples and used different methodologies, including the biannual Eurobarometer studies and the annual Erasmus Student Network surveys, among others. In the 2005 Eurobarometer study *Youth Takes the Floor*, 64% of citizens aged 20-24 agreed that they "feel attached to Europe," while 59% agreed that they "feel (to some extent) European" (p. 8). The Erasmus Student Network (ESN) survey of 2008 reported that 62% of their students agreed or strongly agreed that the host country "felt like their second home at the end of their stay abroad." (p. 35). And, according to the most recent 2011 Eurobarometer poll, more Europeans continue to trust in the EU than in their own national governments. Clearly, young Europeans are not retreating to the safety of their national identification, despite the current economic uncertainty.

Based on the vast literature on citizenship, identity and the impact of international education, we know that a myriad of factors determine how students engage in study abroad experiences and how they think about their own identity. As Jane Knight reminds us, "the waters are murky when one discusses the role of student mobility in helping to develop national identity, regional identity, national citizenship and global citizenship (in press)." It is my hope that the data presented in this paper will animate additional thought on these issues and entice others to engage in rigorous study and analysis that can lead to even more reliable and conclusive findings.

LIMITATIONS

Some of the challenges this study met were the following. Students were surveyed and interviewed only in English or German, not their native language, which made comprehending and discussing some of the complex issues in the research difficult. The fact that the interviewee was an American academic raises the problem of "social desirability"—an interviewee's eagerness to impress the interviewer and say what they think sounds good rather than what they actually believe. The amount of time students in this study spent abroad varied between a semester and a year, a fact which undoubtedly impacts the depth of impressions, competencies and identities one can develop. And, the lack of a statistical control group makes it impossible to document whether the citizenship identification of the Erasmus students was any different than it would have been for students who did not study abroad. Subsequent research will include a control group.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

BERNHARD STREITWIESER completed his Master's at Georgetown University and his PhD at Columbia University. He was a German Chancellor Fellow at the Max Planck Institute for Human Development and Education in Berlin, Germany and served as Research Analyst at the American Institutes for Research in Washington, DC. Bernhard has numerous academic publications and conference presentations on international higher education, German education and research methodology.

Bernhard returned to the Searle Center in 2008 as Senior Research Associate. He is currently managing and evaluating two research projects: 1) the Science Research Workshop (SRW) program; and 2) the Students' Conceptions of International Experience (SCIE) study.

Between 2002-2006, Bernhard worked at the Searle Center as an Associate Director and the Coordinator of Research and Evaluation of the Gateway Science Workshop program, followed by two years as the Associate Director of Northwestern University's Study Abroad Office. Bernhard is a Teaching Associate in the School of Education and Social Policy, where he teaches on comparative higher education, and a former lecturer in the German Department.

Since August 1, 2010, Bernhard has been working in Berlin, Germany as a Fulbright Senior Research Professor at the Humboldt University. Bernhard will be collecting data for the Center's Student Conceptions of International Experience (SCIE) Study and additional material for his book on citizenship identity and the ERASMUS Mundus student mobility program in Europe.

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